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Fluency Instruction in Contemporary Core Reading Programs

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FLUENCY INSTRUCTION IN CONTEMPORARY CORE READING PROGRAMS

by

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ABSTRACT

Fluency Instruction in Contemporary Core Reading Programs

by

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Core reading programs (CRPs) provide the curriculum and guide reading instruction for many classroom teachers. The purpose of this study was to conduct a content analysis of reading fluency instruction in current (2008-2011 copyright) grade 2 and 3 top-selling core reading program lessons to answer the following two research questions: (1) How do core reading programs recommend that fluency skills be taught? (2) How do reading fluency instructional practices in core programs compare to evidence-based reading fluency instructional practices defined in current research? The results of the analysis revealed that fluency instruction is more prevalent in current core reading programs than reported in previous content analyses and that the recommendations for fluency instruction are somewhat aligned with the findings of the National Reading Panel (NRP). All lessons coded focused on one of four characteristics of a fluent reader (i.e., rate, accuracy, expression, and/or comprehension). However, more lessons focused on expression than the other three categories. Second, current CRPs incorporated guided oral reading procedures; almost half of lessons included some type of explanation, modeling, and/or guided practice from a teacher or peer; however, reading with a partner was more prevalent than reading with the teacher (choral and echo reading). Also, more than half of the lessons included the use of repeated reading procedures; however, several CRPs suggested that students read the text more

than the recommended three to four times. Last, the near absence of lessons that suggest the practice of independent silent reading also reflect the NRP's findings that neither recommended nor endorsed its use in the classroom. More recent research reports no significant effect differences of guided wide reading (one time reading of text) and scaffolded silent reading of texts over guided oral repeated reading of texts. The five current CRPs did not recommend the use of either of these two practices.

(187 pages)

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Brady E. Donaldson

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

A decade ago, the important and often "neglected reading goal" of oral reading fluency gained renewed interest in the field of literacy education (Allington, 1983, p. 556; 2006a, 2006b). This shift was due, in part, to the identification of fluency by the National Reading Panel (National Institute of Child Health and Human Development [NICHD], 2000) as having a positive impact on word recognition and comprehension across several grades.

Since colonial times, oral reading has been considered an integral part of reading instruction in the US. At a time when most US homes had limited books and possibly only one household member able to read, oral reading served functions of both entertainment and the sharing of information (Hyatt, 1943). To fulfill these needs of the time, the ability to read eloquently became the goal of reading instruction and was represented in most of the published reading programs (Smith, 2002). By the end of the nineteenth century, the "oral reading method" was deemed a necessary part of instruction. This assisted form of instruction consisted of the teacher reading passages of text orally after which students would memorize and/or mirror the same passage of text with a focus on accuracy and appropriate expression (Smith, 2002).

Early reading fluency research can be traced to small, but important word recognition experiments conducted by Cattell, Erdmann, Dodge, and Huey (Henderson, 1977; Huey, 1908). As early as the mid 1880s, researchers Cattell, Bryan, and Harter (Samuels, 2006) studied the development of rapid word recognition. Cattell's initial observation that words could be recognized with an exposure duration less than what was needed for single letter recognition was quickly reinforced by several related findings (Gough, 2002). In his book published in 1908, *The Psychology and Pedagogy of Reading,* Huey (Samuels, 2006) added his insights to this early research by describing early stages of reading fluency. He noted that beginning readers must pay

close attention to a newly encountered word. Each repetition of the word "progressively frees the mind from attention to details, makes facile the total act, shortens the time, and reduces the extent to which consciousness must concern itself with the process" (p. 25).

Oral fluency as the prime instructional focus shifted in the early 1900's due to several factors. As reading material became more available and as more Americans became literate, the need for imparting information through oral readings declined. Many education scholars, including Horace Mann, began to challenge the focus on elocution over comprehension (Rasinski, 2006). Edmond Huey noted that oral reading was an activity only done in schools; that "reading in actual life is to be mainly silent reading" (Smith, 2002, p. 151). Based on work by Thorndike in1917, comprehension of text became the new focal point of instruction and silent reading was seen to be the more appropriate path for reading instruction. By the 1920s, silent reading instruction was well-established (Rasinski, 2006; Smith, 2002).

During this same time, standardized assessments shifted toward using silent reading to evaluate the reading progress of students. Fuchs, Fuchs, Hosp, and Jenkins (2001) noted a decline in use of both silent and oral fluency components in reading assessments from 1920 through the end of the century. Likewise, Rasinski (2006) noted that this trend to move away from fluency instruction and assessment was reflected in the "textbooks for training teachers in reading instruction [which] provided little, if any, in-depth focus on defining, teaching, or assessing reading fluency" (p. 10).

Though instruction shifted away from oral reading, the practice did not disappear completely. The goal of fluency for expressive reading changed to that of checking students' abilities to recognize words. This came in the format of "round-robin reading" in which individual students orally read unrehearsed passages of text. From the 1950s to the present, the use of this method of reading instruction prevailed both in core reading programs and classrooms (Hoffman, 1987; Hoffman & Segel, 1983).

Possibly the first modern theoretical conception of reading fluency, LaBerge and Samuels' (1974) theory of automatic information processing in reading, purported that word recognition and phrasing should be done at an automatic level to free up cognitive resources to focus on comprehension of text. In 1979, Samuels put this theory to the test by developing the repeated reading method. In this technique, students read the same passage several times until an arbitrarily established level of fluency was reached. Students then proceeded to the next passage in the text and practiced rereading it to this established point of fluency. As the students reread each passage, word recognition errors decreased, reading rates increased, and oral expression also improved. The improvements in rate and miscues, or word recognition errors, typically transferred to the next passage in the same text. According to this model, as words are mastered and fluency increases, word recognition becomes an automatic process providing additional attention that can be allocated to comprehension. Thus, this technique implies that improved fluency rates would result in increased comprehension.

Many reading authorities consider fluency an important part of the reading curriculum (Reutzel & Hollingsworth, 1993). Chall (1996) and Ehri (1995) classified fluency as a stage of reading development, thus extending and conveying the importance beyond automatic word recognition. However, in 1983, Allington noted that a lack of oral reading fluency skills is a characteristic of poor readers, but is seldom treated. He also stated that reading fluency is not part of instructional objectives, reading hierarchies, teachers' manuals, daily lesson plans, individualized education plans, or remedial interventions.

Evidence-Based Fluency Instruction

In 2000, the National Reading Panel (NRP), *Teaching Children to Read* (NICHD, 2000) published its synthesis of reading research and identified reading fluency as one of five essential components of early reading development. The report described three characteristics of fluent

readers: (a) the ability to read text accurately, (b) with appropriate speed, and (c) with proper expression. In addition to this simplified definition, the NRP also identified several instructional practices supported by research. “Repeated reading and other procedures that have students reading passages orally multiple times while receiving guidance or feedback from peers, parents, or teachers are effective in improving a variety of reading skills” (NICHD, 2000, pp. 3-20). The report also referred to several studies in which the guidance and feedback offered to young readers was provided in the form of technology-assisted reading such as audio devices and computers. In more recent studies, evidence suggests both wide reading in which students read more texts fewer times and silent reading that are both scaffolded with guidance and feedback also have positive effects on student reading outcomes (Kuhn, 2005; Kuhn et al., 2006; Reutzel, Fawson, & Smith, 2008).

Core Reading Programs

The use of core reading programs (CRP) is not a new phenomenon in American schools. Core reading programs began with the McGuffy readers published in 1866 and continued with and included Scott Foresman’s Sally, Dick and Jane of the 1950s (Hoffman, Sailors, & Patterson 2002; Smith, 2002). From the 1930s through the 1980s, published reading programs were central to reading instruction (Austin & Morrison, 1963; Dole & Osborn, 1991). However, according to Pearson (Smith, 2002), reading programs changed dramatically in the 1980-1990s in response to the “groundswell of support within the teaching profession for whole language” (p. 449). In 2001, the Congressional reauthorization of the U. S. Department of Education’s Elementary Secondary Education Act, currently known as the No Child Left Behind Act (NCLB), and its Reading First mandates gave rise for published reading programs to assume even more importance as the primary guide for classroom reading instruction. According to Dewitz, Jones, and Leahy (2009), education market research indicated that 73.2% of schools surveyed used a core reading program

either closely or to some extent in 2007.

In her now classic study of comprehension instruction in classrooms and programs, Durkin (1981) identified several findings related to reading instruction and the use of core reading programs. First, this is one of the earliest content analysis studies that alluded to reading fluency-like instruction. Other content analyses of core reading programs from the1960s through the1990s spanned several reading components including prereading, decoding, vocabulary, and comprehension skills at various grade levels. Several content analysis studies of core programs have made reference to fluency-like instruction. In her 1981 study of five basal programs, Durkin indicated that the entire core reading program suggested that the selections in the readers be read silently first, followed by oral reading of the text. She noted that authors of K-3 manuals "use a generous amount of space to teach phonics, to promote highly expressive oral reading, and to provide large numbers of assessment questions" (p. 528). In another study, Hoffman and his colleagues (1994) reviewed instructional components of five first-grade programs and reported that the programs advised that the teacher first read the story aloud, followed by teacher and students reading the story together to "build fluency" and ending with the students reading the story multiple times to "build independence" (p. 14). A third study conducted by McGill-Franzen, Zmach, Solic, and Zeig (2006) is the only study located that specifically reviewed fluency instruction as part of its analysis. Unfortunately for the reading field, the description of the content and methods of instruction as well as the outcomes associated with fluency were minimal. In the two third-grade programs reviewed, the researchers indicated that fluency was rarely taught and that neither program stated whether the anthology was to be read aloud to students; read orally, chorally, or in pairs by students; or read independently or silently by students.

Instructional Delivery Model

The second major finding of Durkin's (1981) study related to the explicitness of reading

instruction. Her landmark findings reported that both basal programs and teachers gave "considerable time (or space) to assessment and practice but very little to direct instruction. Since most teachers' manual's recommendations for instruction are brief, a match also exists between that brevity and the teachers' 'mentioning'" (p. 528). The goal of this review is not to identify or describe cognitive or comprehension strategies that were researched; however, evidenced-based instructional methods and procedures for helping students acquire use of comprehension strategies has relevance to fluency instruction. Reutzel (2006) stated that "since fluency and comprehension are so tightly connected, many aspects of high-quality comprehension instruction also pertain to providing high-quality fluency instruction" (p. 69).

Pearson and Dole (1988) identified three variables of explicit instruction based on the evidence of the efficacy of direct instruction. First, the teacher models or provides "direct explanation" of what (declarative knowledge), how (procedural knowledge) and the why and when (conditional knowledge) a skill or strategy ought to be used appropriately. Second, the teacher provides guided practice at which time the teacher and students perform the skill or strategy together. As the students become more proficient, the teacher gradually releases the responsibility of task completion to the students. Finally, the teacher provides opportunities for the transfer of learned skills or strategies and application to new situations and materials (Pearson & Gallagher, 1983). Multiple components of this level of "explicitness" of instruction are represented in several procedures identified by the NRP (NIHCD, 2000) that emphasize the importance of "guidance" which often accompanies oral reading practice "to develop fluent reading habits that would allow them [students] to read text more quickly, accurately, and with appropriate expression and understanding" (pp. 3-11).

The final and possibly most important finding relative to content analyses reported by Durkin (1981) is the correspondence between what the observed teachers "did" and what is in the teachers' manuals of the basal reader series. As a follow-up to her classroom-observation study in

which almost no comprehension instruction was seen in grade 3-6 classrooms visited, Durkin reported in a later review of teachers' manuals, that these manuals gave far more attention to assessment and practice than to direct, explicit comprehension instruction. She reported that "although the frequency data cannot explain why the observed teachers spent their time the way they did, the data are able to point to a close match between the teachers' behavior and the examined manuals" (p. 528). As an example, she suggested that the brevity of teachers' instruction or "mentioning" seen in classrooms may be due to the manuals' considerable time (or space) to assessment and practice but very little to direct instruction" (p. 528). The strong influence of core reading programs on how reading is taught and what students read is further reinforced in *Becoming a Nation of Readers: The Report of the Commission on Reading* (Anderson, Hiebert, Scott, & Wilkinson, 1985). This document reported that "for the most part, teachers follow the instructional strategies prescribed in the teachers' manuals...and that basal programs account for a large part of teachers' and students' time during the reading period" (p. 35). Although studies have typically relied on interviews or questionnaires as the primary data sources, in their 1998 study of literature-based core reading program use in first grade classrooms, Hoffman and his colleagues were able to document significant changes in classroom teaching practices associated with the introduction of new core reading program materials. Upon adopting a new program, most of the teachers in the study chose initially to import old practices into the new programs. Even though teachers' practices reflected some changes connected to the new basals, their underlying philosophies reflected little substantive change. While several made changes by using the new materials or, for some, also incorporating new methods connected to the new basals, none of the teachers reported changing her underlying philosophy about reading. The researchers found "that teachers' epistemological orientations were determining factors in how they responded to changes in teaching context and how they adapted their practices to the new programs" (p. 189).

Problem Statement

From the beginnings of reading instruction in the US, oral reading fluency has been an important component of reading instruction (Smith, 2002). Empirical research now provides teachers of reading both the content and the instructional delivery methods that contribute to the improvement of reading fluency in young children. Research also indicates a strong association exists between the content and practices found in core reading programs and the reading instruction offered by teachers who use them (Anderson et al., 1985; Durkin, 1981; Hoffman et al., 1998). Based on a survey conducted by Education Market Research (cited by Dewitz et al., 2009), approximately three quarters of schools in the US use a core reading program to guide classroom reading instruction. Although current studies suggest that the majority of teachers use a CRP to guide or inform reading instruction in classrooms, there is no research that specifically and carefully examines the content and methods of reading fluency instruction within these programs, particularly those core reading programs published after the NRP's release of its findings in 2000. In that research has established the content and types of fluency instruction that positively affect reading achievement and that the quality of instruction in CRPs is known to influence the quality of teachers' reading instruction, there is a need to describe the content and methods of fluency instruction outlined within current core reading programs.

Purpose of Study

The purpose of this study is to conduct a content analysis of reading fluency instruction in current (2008-2011 copyright) grade 2 and 3 top-selling core reading program lessons to answer the following two research questions.

1. How are fluency skills taught? This may include:
    a. Recommendations as to how the teacher is to instruct and encourage students to

practice these skills.

b. Recommendations for tasks to assist students in learning about and practicing these skills.

c. Patterns of instruction and practice such as consistency, frequency, and duration.

2. How do reading fluency instructional practices in core programs compare to evidence-based reading fluency instructional practices defined in current research?

Definition of Terms

Evidence-Based Fluency Instruction

Shanahan (2006) described evidence-based (or research-based) instruction as those practices that are backed by studies that (a) employ systematic, empirical methods that draw on observation or experiment; (b) involve rigorous data analyses that· are adequate to test the stated hypothesis and justify the general conclusions drawn; and (c) rely on measurements or observational methods that provide valid data across evaluators and observers and across multiple measurements and observations. He summed it up well in his chapter in *Fluency Instruction Research-based Best Practices* when he referred to studies

> that show that kids who get this kind of teaching do better than kids who don't. There must be evidence drawn from experimental studies in which some teachers adopt the new practice in their classrooms while other, similar teachers continue as usual. The classrooms in the study must be roughly equal in reading achievement at the start, but they have to be different in the end. There are standards of quality for which studies, and I expect this evidence to come from investigations that meet these quality standards. Finally, I don't think it is enough that a study or two support a particular finding. There should be many independent investigators that tried this practice in different places, but with consistent results. (p. 23)

The definition of *evidence-based fluency instruction* used in this study represents a combination of instructional practices in fluency instruction that have been identified in the literature as positively impacting student fluency development. This includes review of the following: (a) the meta-analysis on fluency completed by the NRP (NICHD, 2000) and (b) a post-

NRP edited volume of fluency instruction, *What Research Has to Say About Fluency Instruction* (Samuels & Farstrup, 2006), and (c) the more recently published chapter, *Reading Fluency* (Rasinski, Reutzel, Chard, & Linan-Thompson, 2011).

A considerable amount of research has been conducted on how best to develop fluency for students who do not yet have it. Though experimental research studies on developing fluency through increasing the amount of independent reading are limited, there is substantial correlational evidence showing a clear relationship between the amount students read, their reading fluency, and their reading comprehension. However, many students are not in a position to engage in wide reading, and they may need more guidance and support in order to develop fluency. Procedures supported by research that can help students improve their fluency include repeated reading, wide reading, reading to perform, scaffolded silent reading, and technology-assisted reading.

Repeated Reading

The NRP (NIHCD, 2000) reported that repeated reading and other procedures that have students reading passages orally multiple times while receiving guidance or feedback from peers, parents, teachers, or audiotapes are effective in improving a variety of reading skills including word knowledge, reading speed, and oral accuracy. Additionally, the impact of these practices on comprehension and overall reading achievement is not "inconsiderable, and in several comparisons it was actually quite high" (pp. 3-18).

Wide Reading

More recent studies also indicate that wide reading in which students read a wider range of text a single time also positively affects student reading outcomes when accompanied with instruction, teacher guidance, and corrective feedback. Kuhn (2005), Kuhn and colleagues (2006), and O'Connor, White, and Swanson (2007) conducted comparisons between repeated and wide

reading and reported that both practices showed better gains in word recognition and comprehension than the control. Furthermore, no significant differences were reported between the two practices.

Reading to Perform

Recitations, readers' theatre and its alternate forms such as radio reading, that provide students opportunities to rehearse and perform text readings also have a positive effect on student reading outcomes. Rasinski and colleagues (2011) reported on studies conducted by Martinez, Roser, and Strecker (1999) and Griffith and Rasinski (2004) in which they conclude that "engaging students in various forms of reading performance for an audience is significantly motivating and an effective way to practice reading to promote reading fluency" (p. 305).

Scaffolded Silent Reading

The NRP (NICHD, 2000) analyzed an additional group of studies that focused on encouraging students to read more which usually included students reading silently on their own with no monitoring. They found a substantial number of studies that showed a correlation between the amount of reading and reading achievement; however, they failed to find sufficient evidence to recommend the practice of silent (independent) reading (Reutzel et al., 2008). However, several new studies have added to converging evidence of the effectiveness of silent reading that incorporates teacher guidance, student monitoring, student accountability and appropriate book selection. One such study by Reutzel and his colleagues compared the effects of scaffolded silent reading (ScSR) and the evidence-based practice of guided repeated oral reading (GROR) with feedback. The researchers "indicated no significant differences between *ScSR* and *GROR with feedback* on third grade students' fluency and comprehension development with one exception where the *ScSR* group performed significantly better on reading with expression. However, "qualitative results indicated that either of the two approaches used exclusively during

a full year of school tended toward tedium and reduced overall student enjoyment and motivation" (p. 37).

Technology-Assisted Reading

Though somewhat limited, several studies indicate methods that incorporate technology to provide models of reading, practice and feedback are beneficial for increasing fluency. Beimiller and Shany (1995) and Rasinski (1990) reported that tape-assisted fluency practice in which students read while listening to recorded texts yielded similar results in comprehension as teacher led practice. Additional studies, including six reported in the NRP Report, reported positive effects with the use of computer-based fluency programs. Such programs include voice recognition capabilities; corrective feedback and tracking student progress; and interactive word recognition and meaning support.

Instructional Delivery Model/Explicit Fluency Instruction

Pikulski and Chard (2005) reported that many educators have taken a simplistic approach to developing fluency that if students just "read, read, read," they would achieve fluency. However, research and theory suggest many students will need expert instruction and teacher guidance in order to progress efficiently through the stages of reading development. The NRP (NIHCD, 2000) and other recent studies identify several practices that share similar components of explicit instruction including: (a) teacher introduction of text with modeling of fluent reading, often followed with a discussion of text meaning; (b) guided practice (i.e. teacher-led choral/echoic reading and/or partner rereading); (c) corrective feedback; and (d) independent or performance reading of text (Hiebert, 2005). Several methods such as fluency oriented reading instruction (FORI; Stahl, Heubach, & Cramond, 1997), fluency development lesson (FDL; Rasinski, Padak, Linek, & Sturtevant, 1994), and oral recitation lesson (ORL; Hoffman, 1987;

Reutzel & Hollingsworth, 1993) incorporate components of teacher modeling and guidance, oral reading practice with assistance, and corrective feedback. Another method incorporating such components, the neurological impress method (NIM), is provided one-on-one as the teacher and student sit side-by-side, the teacher leads out while both pointing to and reading the text together in a fluent manner (Flood, Lapp, & Fisher, 2005). Modified forms of this method include choral reading, echo reading, and paired or partner reading.

Core Reading Programs

Since the early 20th century, the term *basal reading programs* referred to commercially developed reading series because they served as the "base" for the instruction of reading. More recently, the term *core reading programs* (CRP) is used to distinguish them from intervention programs for struggling readers (Foorman, 2007). Current CRPs offer an array of materials for teachers including the following: (a) anthologies of stories and essays considered appropriate for students of various reading levels, (b) a scope and sequence of objectives reflecting skills that are often considered necessary for children in order to learn to read, (c) directions for instruction and practice activities to meet stated objectives, (d) assessments to determine whether objectives have been met, and (e) recording systems to keep track of student progress (Shannon, 1987). For the purpose of this study, the terms basal reading program and core reading program are used interchangeably.

Limitations and Delimitations

Though each page of the teachers' manuals will be scanned for fluency instruction, not all components will be analyzed and reported in this study. Only those components of the manuals intended for regular classroom instruction and labeled as "fluency" will be included. Any segments intended for "special" populations of students will be excluded including below-,

on-, or advanced levels; English language learners (ELL); gifted students. Any ancillary materials such as facsimiles of literacy centers, worksheets, workbooks, or assessments reproduced in the manuals will be excluded as well. Several studies (e.g., Hiebert, 2003) have recently been conducted that describe the role of text used during fluency instruction including text type (narrative vs. expository) and level and/or difficulty of text. This study will not attempt to describe or analyze neither the type nor level of text provided by the CRPs.

Significance of the Study

The intended findings of this study have important implications for classroom instruction in schools that use core reading programs as well as for the companies that publish them. Dewitz and his colleagues (2009) pointed out that "much of what exists in core programs is useful, but schools and their teachers need to know that all core programs have flaws. Fidelity to a flawed program is not a virtue" (p. 122). In that core reading programs do "have strong influence on *how* American children are taught to read and *what* American children read," it's imperative that instruction outlined in them is evidence-based (Anderson et al., 1985, p. 36). Insights from the findings of the two content analyses studies by Dewitz and colleagues and McGill-Franzen and colleagues (2006) revealed that the instruction outlined in the 2003-2005 editions of core reading programs reviewed in the studies seems more aligned to current research findings than in previously published programs. Dewitz and colleagues reviewed comprehension instruction in grades 3-5 and McGill-Franzen and colleagues reported on third grade phonics, vocabulary, fluency, and comprehension instruction all of which were identified by the NRP (NICHD, 2000) as critical components of reading instruction. Though reporting was minimal, the McGill-Franzen and colleagues study was the first and only to review fluency as a separate reading component. According to Dewitz and colleagues, the explicitness of instruction suggested in reading programs has improved since Durkin's 1981 study. Findings indicate that reading programs rarely

just “mentioned” a skill; instead, when skills were mentioned, the manual tended to give some explanation of its value or its procedure. However, Dewitz and colleagues also indicated that the “manual stopped short of direct explanation” (p. 112).

On the other hand, core reading programs have been shown to include instructional methods that may not reflect the findings of current research. Dewitz and colleagues (2009) suggest that it may stem from the process used to develop CRPs that typically involve three competing interests: those of the author team, the publishers and editors, and the marketing and sales people. The author team which is usually comprised of reading educators and researchers “has the least influence on the construction of the program” (p. 121). The NRP recommended seven comprehension strategies plus multiple-strategy instruction and Duke and Pearson (2002) endorsed nine. Dewitz and colleagues identified 18 to 29 strategies per program per year suggesting a “curricula that is wide but not terribly deep” (p. 121). They also suggested that although core programs provide instruction beyond mentioning, the programs do not provide sufficient support or scaffolding so that students can learn to use these skills on their own. Too often the instructional lessons move from teach to question or assess, without guided practice. Dewitz and colleagues, reported that although “strategies are taught, thus partially justifying the label ‘scientific-based reading research,’ they are not taught with the rigor, persistence, or design principles to ensure students’ acquisition of these strategies” (p. 121). McGill-Franzen and colleagues (2006) reported similar findings: “Teachers’ manuals did suggest modeling and explicit language to use to help students but provided minimal guidance on how and when to use them” (p. 77).

Another important significance of this study and its possible contributions to existing knowledge base of reading pedagogy are the following three extensions of understandings of fluency instruction. First, this study reviewed the latest editions of the same programs used in other studies. The Dewitz and colleagues (2009) and McGill-Franzen and colleagues (2006)

studies reviewed programs published in or before 2005. These same programs have since developed new editions. Common to this and the other two previously mentioned studies, was the analysis of explicitness of the instruction provided for teachers. Even though the topic for this study is limited to fluency instruction, the same level of instruction, including teacher modeling, direct explanation, guided practice with feedback and independent practice positively affect student achievement across other reading components. The findings of this study indicate an increased intensity of explicit instruction and a greater emphasis on guided practice.

The second important contribution of this study to current understandings is, unlike previous content analyses, this study focuses exclusively on reading fluency. Although McGill-Franzen and colleagues (2006) included a fluency review in their study, the findings are very limited. This study will provide detailed findings that will address instructional practices that have a strong research base such as repeated and wide oral reading that is accompanied with explicit and guided instruction. It might also reveal whether or not instructional practices with emerging evidence such as silent reading with scaffolding are included in the newer published programs.

Third and lastly, this study may well be the first content analysis study of fluency instruction conducted since publication of the NRP in 2000 that includes second grade core reading programs in addition to first and third grades previously studied. No other study of this nature that included second grade was located in the literature search conducted for this study. In that researchers such as Hiebert (2005) and Hasbrouck and Tindal (1992, 2006) indicated that the greatest average gains in fluency rates occur at second grade level, it will be interesting to determine both the what's and the how's of fluency instruction suggested for this grade level in the various best-selling programs.

This study may provide program authors, publishers and editors, and marketers with added information to develop programs and materials that align better with the evidence-base.

Having access to such materials, teachers, administrators, stakeholders, and policy makers will be better informed to plan and provide fluency instruction in schools, particularly in second- and third-grade classrooms.

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

After an extensive review of the literature, the NRP (NICHD, 2000) indicated that classroom practices that encourage repeated oral reading with feedback and guidance leads to meaningful improvements in reading expertise for students including word recognition, fluency and comprehension (Rasinski, Blachowicz, & Lems, 2006, p. 18). Despite the significant and consistent outcomes associated with the ability to read fluently, the "construct of fluency has been criticized for lacking clear theoretical and definitional agreement or clarity" (Miller & Schwanenflugel, 2008, p. 336). The purpose of this review is to synthesize previous research related to reading fluency. The following objectives have been established for the review.

1. Provide definition and theoretical constructs of oral reading fluency.
2. Describe the current state of research in the area of fluency instruction.
3. Describe the current state of research of content analyses of core reading programs.
4. Formulate informed conclusions based on a synthesis of research to guide the focus and design of this proposed study.

Definition

There is a consensus in the reading field that fluent reading involves three components that combine to create a unified process: automatic word recognition (automaticity), which includes both rate and accuracy; and the appropriate use of prosodic features such as stress, pitch and suitable phrasing (Allington, 1983; Chall, 1996; Cowie, Douglas-Cowie, & Wichmann, 2002; Dowhower, 1991; Jenkins, Fuchs, van den Broek, Espin, & Deno, 2003; NICHD, 2000; Rasinski et al., 2011; Reutzel, 1996; Schwanenflugel, Hamilton, Kuhn, Wisenbaker, & Stahl, 2004). In that the ultimate goal of reading is the construction of meaning (e.g., Anderson et al., 1985), it is also

important to consider the ways in which fluency may contribute to reading comprehension (Allington, 1983; Rasinski & Zutell, 1996; Rasinski et al., 2011; Reutzel, 1996; Schreiber, 1991). Often, definitions of fluency go beyond rate, accuracy, and expression to include text comprehension. Based on the theory of automaticity first developed by LaBerge and Samuels (1974) and Schreiber's (1980) theory that readers are able to attend to the prosodic and syntactic features of text while reading, reading fluency is defined as the ability to decode and comprehend at the same time and to reflect the syntactic and semantic features of the text by reading with expression (Rasinski et al., 2011; Samuels, 2006).

For the purpose of this study, the following definition developed by Pikulski and Chard (2005) summed up these varied aspects of reading fluency: "Reading fluency refers to efficient, effective word recognition skills that permit a reader to construct the meaning of text. Fluency is manifested in accurate, rapid, expressive oral reading and is applied during, and makes possible, silent reading comprehension" (p. 510).

Historical Overview and Theoretical Constructs of Reading Fluency

The roots of fluency instruction in the United States can be traced back to colonial times. Due to the dearth of available reading material and the prevalence of illiteracy, reading instruction in early America placed oral reading fluency as the zenith of instructional goals (Rasinski et al., 2011; Smith, 2002). Cobb summarized the specific reading objectives of the times.

> A just delivery consists in a distinct articulation of words pronounced in proper tones, suitably varied to the sense and the emotions of the mind; with due attention to accent, to emphasis, in its several gradations; to rests or pauses of the voice, in proper places and well-measured degrees of time; and the whole accompanied with expressive looks, and significant gestures. (Smith, 2002, p. 37)

Despite this early interest and emphasis on elocution, the years between 1918 and 1925 marked an exaggerated, and in some cases, almost exclusive emphasis on silent reading

instruction (Smith, 2002, p. 150). Several factors account for this decline in oral reading. As the number of Americans became literate and as reading material became more easily available, the need for oral reading for entertaining purposes and for imparting information to others declined. With this rapid expansion in the number of books, magazines, newspapers and other materials available for adults and children came both the need not only cover more material but also for a more efficient mode of reading; therefore, silent reading seemed to be preferred and encouraged (Hyatt, 1943). Silent reading instruction focused on student understanding of the text with the first and only reading of text, thus increasing the opportunity to read many texts; whereas oral reading instruction aimed more at expressiveness in reading through intensive practice of a limited number of texts (Hoffman & Segel, 1983).

Concerned that oral reading took priority over comprehension, many scholars argued that the goal of reading was the acquisition of meaning (Hyatt, 1943). Parker claimed that speech and oral reading were forms of expression, whereas silent reading was a "matter of attention" (Smith, 2002). In 1908, Huey expressed similar thoughts:

> Reading as a school exercise has almost always been thought of as reading aloud, in spite of the obvious fact that reading in actual life is to be mainly silent reading. The consequent attention to reading as an exercise in speaking, and it has usually been a rather bad exercise in speaking at that, has been heavily at the expense of reading as the art of thought getting and thought manipulation. (Smith, 2002, p. 151)

Studies conducted in the early 1900s by such researchers as Mead, Oberholtzer, Pintner, Gilliland, Schmidt, and Juall revealed the most convincing evidence of the efficacy of silent reading. These investigations indicated the superiority of silent reading over oral reading, both in speed and in comprehension (Rasinski et al., 2011; Smith, 2002).

The standardized testing movement, which began in the early 20th century, also supported the shift away from oral reading and toward silent reading. By 1918, the availably of numerous silent reading tests became a powerful factor in stressing silent reading. "A common inference is that as soon as school officials begin to test some phase of instruction, teachers begin

to emphasize that phase in their teaching" (Smith, 2002, p. 152). Assessing reading ability through oral reading, necessitated individual renditions of text, thus proving to be "unwieldy and uneconomical" (Smith, 2002, p. 150).

Samuels (2006) also noted that during the early 1900s behaviorism became the dominant paradigm governing education and maintained its control into the 1950s. He noted that "under this iron fist of behaviorism, researchers were prevented from studying inside-the-head components of reading like comprehension and fluency" (p. 26). He also cited the whole language philosophy of the 1970s as a second factor. "The fighting the 'reading wars' took up the energy of many in the reading community. Compared to fighting the reading wars, work on fluency was of lesser importance" (p. 26).

By the end of the 1950s, cognitive psychology had become the dominant paradigm, and researchers began studying comprehension and fluency. Despite the attention afforded to fluency in the early 1900s, it was not until the late 1970s and 1980s when literacy scholars (e.g., Chomsky, 1976, 1978; LaBerge & Samuels, 1974) began to write theoretically and practically about the importance of fluency, that reading fluency took a more prominent role in our understanding of reading development (Chard, Vaughn, & Tyler, 2002; Rasinski et al., 2011). It was at this time that Allington (1983) consolidated these varying and emerging points of view related to fluency when he identified it as the neglected read goal. Rasinski and Zutell (1996) also pointed out that instructional and professional development materials in reading of the time rarely made mention of reading fluency (Rasinski et al., 2011).

Historically, two theoretical of reading fluency have been cited in the literature. The first, automatic processing of the surface-level features of text, can be traced back to Huey (1908) who likened the development of fluent reading to the development of other psychomotor skills such as playing tennis, remarking that both skills benefited from practice. "Repetition progressively frees the mind from attention to details, and makes facile the total act, shortens the time, and reduces

the extent to which consciousness must concern itself with the process" (as cited in Chard et al., 2002, p. 104).

Considered as one of the more important milestones in contemporary conceptions of reading fluency, LaBerge and Samuels' (1974) publication of a theoretical article on automatic information processing in reading provided the scientific rationale for understanding how fluency occurs through automatic word recognition (Rasinski et al., 2011). They proposed that learning to read involves increasing automaticity in processing word units (e.g., letter-sound correspondences), processing these units into recognizable words, and connecting the words while reading a passage (Chard et al., 2002). They also described how the execution of a complex skill such as reading necessitates the coordination of many component processes within a short time frame. If each component required attention, the performance of the more complex skill would exceed the readers' attentional capacity and therefore be impossible. By contrast, if enough components are executed automatically, then the attentional load would be within tolerable limits, permitting successful performance (Fuchs et al., 2001). In effect, improvement in the processing of units, words, and connected text cognitively releases the reader to focus attention on comprehensions of the text (Chard et al., 2002; Samuels, 1997).

Stanovich's (1980) interactive-compensatory model further extends this theory. According to this model, information from multiple sources aids readers in their construction of meaning and may include orthographic, phonological, semantic, and syntactic sources. If readers are less skilled at gleaning information from one source, they may become over reliant on other areas. According to the model, until readers achieve automaticity in word recognition, they will necessarily depend more on alternative knowledge sources such as context to make sense of what is being read. Stanovich would argue that automatic word recognition allows readers to concentrate on the meaning of text, rather than on identifying words. Thus, automatic word recognition allows one to focus contextual analysis on constructing meaning, rather than

decoding (Kuhn, Schwanenflugel, & Meisinger, 2010).

As an alternate to this theory, Logan's "instance theory of automatization," suggested that automaticity and fluency are based on memory retrieval. This theory is based on three important assumptions: (a) obligatory encoding, (b) obligatory retrieval, and (c) instance representation (Logan, 1997). *Obligatory encoding* refers to focusing attention on a stimulus (e.g., a word) and storing details in memory. O*bligatory retrieval* suggests that attending to the stimulus is sufficient to retrieve that or similar stimuli from memory. *Instance representation* refers to the coding and storage of each memory trace of experiences with a stimulus in memory. Information recall is automatic when it relies on memory traces laid down in the brain each time a task is executed. Therefore, the strength of the memory trace is increased each time the task is performed (Chard, Letterlin-Geller, Baker, Doabler, & Apichatabutra, 2009; Rasinski et al., 2011).

According to Logan (1997), processes are considered to be automatic when they possess four properties: speed, effortlessness, autonomy, and lack of conscious awareness. These properties can be considered together or separately when determining whether a skill is automatized (Kuhn et al., 2010). Logan contends that automaticity depends on amount of practice and as performance becomes more reliant on memory retrieval and less on problem solving (Logan, 1997; Rasinski et al., 2011) As automaticity develops, whether in terms of reading, perceptual-motor activities, or another skilled task, the learner's performance not only becomes accurate, it gets faster. However, this increase in speed is not limitless. Rather, the learning curve for these tasks follows what is known as the *power law* which states that reaction time decreases as a function of practice until some irreducible limit is reached. Speed increases throughout practice; however, the gains are largest early on and diminish with further practice (Logan, 1997).

Perfetti's (1977, 1985) verbal efficiency model further suggested slow word reading is also debilitating by consuming working memory and, therefore, preventing the individual from thinking about the text while reading. Slow word reading clogs working memory with the

processing of word level reading so as to prevent comprehension at the content level. Therefore, both rapid reading of high frequency words and rapid decoding as a means to enhance text understanding appear critical for typical reading development (Chard et al., 2002; Fuchs et al., 2001; Kuhn & Stahl, 2003; Meyer & Felton, 1999).

Posner and Snyder's (1975) theory of expectancy provided a framework for posing alternative processes by which context facilitation accrues for good and poor readers and lends support to an interactive model of reading. LaBerge and Samuels' (1974) model of reading required that higher level processes await the completion of lower ones; however, more recent conceptualizations of reading proposes an interactive process, in which the initiation of a higher level process does not require completion of all lower ones. Several studies (e.g., Leu, DeGroff, & Simons, 1986; Stanovich & Stanovich, 1995; West, Stanovich, Feeman, & Cunningham, 1983) document that although good and poor readers both experience contextual facilitation, the effect is greater for poor readers (Fuchs et al., 2001).

Applied to reading fluency, if a word is read frequently, the cumulative practice results in an increased likelihood that the word will be recognized when encountered later and the speed will increase. The combination of Perfetti's (1985) verbal efficiency theory and Logan's (1997) instance theory provide intuitive support for the notion of repeated reading as an intervention for fluency building. As students repeatedly read the same content, it is likely that they will practice the same words multiple times, increasing the likelihood they will be able to automatically retrieve those same words in future exposures. Simultaneously, they reduce the attention required to read the words and can focus more intently on the meaning of what they are reading (Chard et al., 2009).

Realizing that his theoretical model did not address practical issues of instruction, Samuels (1979, 1997) developed repeated reading, a method that promotes fluency. This method included breaking children's stories into 150-word segments and giving copies to beginning

readers. The students followed along in the text as the text was read aloud and modeled with proper expression. The students reread the passage a number of times until each one reached a criterion rate of 85 words per minute. After reaching the criterion reading rate, the students charted their progress and were then given the next passage in the story to practice. These improvements transferred to new texts. Initial readings of new text were better than their initial readings of previously read texts, and the number of repetitions required to reach the criterion reading rate decreased. Samuels explained his findings in terms of automatic information processing in reading. He argued that through their practiced or repeated readings of texts, readers were developing automaticity in word decoding and word processing. Importantly, this automaticity was generalized to new passages that the students had not previously read (Rasinski et al., 2011).

At this same time, Carol Chomsky was developing a similar method at Harvard's School of Education for helping struggling readers. Chomsky tape recorded a children's story and had the student listen to the tape several times while they looked at the words in their own copy of the story (Samuels, 2006). Similar to Samuels's results, Chomsky reported remarkably positive results on texts practiced which transferred to newly read texts, and also in students' attitudes toward and confidence in their reading (Rasinski et al., 2011).

Although automaticity theory accounts for the accurate and effortless decoding that fluent readers exhibit, it fails to provide a sufficient explanation for the role prosody plays in the reading process. To this, Schrieber (1980) offered the second construct of reading fluency. He theorized that some reading fluency difficulties stem from the absence of prosodic cues in written language. These prosodic cues or features include pitch or intonation, stress or loudness, and duration or timing, all of which contribute to an expressive rendering of a text (Allington, 1983; Dowhower, 1991; Schreiber, 1980, 1987, 1991). Prosodic reading also includes chunking groups of words into phrases or meaningful units in accordance with the syntactic structure of the text (Kuhn &

Stahl, 2003).

Schreiber (1980) suggested that some readers have difficulty transferring prosodic understandings from oral language, where prosodic markings are explicit, to written language, where prosodic markings are inferred even with the presence of written punctuation. Readers who fail to generate appropriate prosodic markings do not divide sentences into meaningful phrases; and therefore, have difficulty comprehending written text, regardless of their ability to decode individual words. Thus, fluency difficulties may stem from problems in decoding or from an inability to divide sentences into meaningful phrases due to an absence of explicit prosodic markers in printed language (Rasinski et al., 2011; Therrien, 2004). Using repeated readings, students are "learning to embed in their reading the expressive and intonational features of oral speech that help to mark phrase boundaries within and between sentences and convey meaning…. [They] are more able to capture the prosodic and syntactic essence of the text, thus improving the surface-level processing of the passage as well as text comprehension" (Rasinski et al., 2011, pp. 290-291).

Report of the National Reading Panel: Teaching Children to Read

In 1997, Congress asked the Director of the National Institute of Child Health and Human Development (NICHD), in consultation with the Secretary of Education, to convene a national panel to assess the status of research-based knowledge, including the effectiveness of various approaches to teach children to read. Fluency was one of five topics considered for extensive study. In the fluency section of the report (NICHD, 2000), panel members considered the effectiveness of two major instructional approaches to fluency development. The first major approach analyzed included procedures that emphasized repeated oral reading practice or guided repeated oral reading practice. The procedures included repeated reading, neurological impress, radio reading, paired reading, and a variety of similar techniques aimed at developing fluent

reading “habits”. The second major approach considered included those formal efforts to increase the amount of independent or recreational reading that children engage in, including sustained silent reading programs.

Repeated Reading and Guided Oral Reading Fluency Procedures

The NRP (NIHCD, 2000) conducted an extensive and systemic literature review of these two approaches to the development of fluency. The search identified 1,200 potential articles on instructional approaches to teaching repeated oral reading. Thus, the NRP limited its search to articles that had been published since 1990. This search resulted in 364 articles. Review of each of these articles’ adherence to the research criteria established by the NRP resulted in a total of 77 articles that were coded for possible use in the final analysis (NICHD, 2000, pp. 2-3).

The NRP divided articles into four sets: Immediate Effects, Group Experiment, Single Subject Studies, and Methods Comparisons. As a result of the limitation of the number and quality of studies, a meta-analysis was appropriate only for the Group Experiment studies. In that meta-analysis, the primary statistic used was “effect size,” indicating the extent to which performance of the treatment group is greater than performance of the control group (NIHCD, 2000, pp. 2-3).

Immediate effects. Fourteen studies examined the immediate impact that repeated reading and guided oral reading had on reading performance, but did not measure transfer to other reading. Interventions included students reading text repeatedly, practicing oral reading while listening to the text being read simultaneously, or receiving particular types of feedback during oral reading. All studies reported demonstrable improvement from a first passage reading to a final passage reading with whatever measures were used; however, studies of third grades reported that reading with feedback or guidance was superior to reading alone. The studies also found clear improvement across multiple readings regardless of students’ reading level or age

levels although greater gains were sometimes attributed to poor readers (NIHCD, 2000).

Group experiment. Sixteen studies were located that attempted to evaluate the impact of repeated reading and other guided oral reading procedure on the reading abilities of students in grades K-12. The criteria for inclusion in this meta-analysis included the following.

1. Study had pretest and posttest measures for reading.

2. Study had a treatment group that received some form of guided repeated oral reading training and a comparison group that did not receive such training. Two of these studies did not provide sufficient information to allow for effect size calculation and were not included. These studies could be directly evaluated through meta-analysis to test the claim that guided repeated oral reading procedures improved reading ability.

The population of these studies spanned several grade levels. Studies of average reader populations focused on students in grades 2 through 4, while those of poor readers included students from grades 2 through 9. Evidence from the studies suggests that repeated reading procedures have a clear impact on the reading ability of non-impaired readers at least through grade 4, as well as on students with various kinds of reading problems throughout high school (NIHCD, 2000).

The combined average weighted effect size of the studies was 0.41 which suggests that guided [repeated] oral reading procedures have a moderate impact on the reading achievement of the types of students who participated in these studies. The average effect size of the nine low-level reader studies was 0.49 and 0.47 for the five average-reader studies (NIHCD, 2000, pp. 3-17). The biggest effect of these procedures was on word recognition and fluency measures, with the smallest effects evident on reading comprehension. According to the report:

> Oral reading practice and feedback or guidance is most likely to influence measures that assess word knowledge, reading speed, and oral accuracy. Nevertheless, the impact of these procedures on comprehension (and total reading scores) is not inconsiderable, and in several comparisons it was actually quite high. (NIHCD, 2000, pp. 3-18)

Single subject studies. The third group of studies, the single subject studies, included 12 studies that used multiple baseline single-subject designs to examine the impact of repeated reading and other guided oral reading procedures on the reading abilities of students in grades K-12. These studies had to have some measure of reading transfer. Although these studies were not combined in the meta-analysis, they were examined to evaluate the conclusions drawn from the meta-analysis. The findings for these studies are almost identical to what was reported in the combined meta-analysis. With the exception of one, all the studies in this group suggested clear and substantial improvements in reading accuracy, speed, or comprehension. "The conclusion is that repeated reading and other related oral reading procedures have a clear value for improving reading ability" (NIHCD, 2000, pp. 3-19).

Methods comparisons. The fourth and final group in this report identified eight studies that compared different methods for doing repeated reading or guided repeated oral reading but with no control group. These studies were attempting to discern which methods work best; however, there were not enough comparisons of guided repeated oral reading procedures to allow for a systematic determination of best procedures.

After careful review of all 50 studies, the panel concluded that

> a persuasive case that repeated reading and other procedures that have students reading passages orally multiple times while receiving guidance for feedback from peers, parents, or teachers are effective in improving a variety of reading skills…. These procedures help improve students' reading ability, at least through grade 5, and they help improve the reading of students with learning problems much later than this. (NIHCD, 2000, pp. 3-20)

Independent Reading

Hundreds of studies have been conducted that indicate that the best readers read the most and that poor readers read the least; however, these data are correlational and correlations do not imply causation (NIHCD, 2000). The Panel's purpose was to provide a research synthesis of empirical studies that tested the efficacy of encouraging reading in terms of its impact on

improving reading achievement. The majority of these studies emphasized independent or silent reading procedures, or in other words, reading in which students read individually on their own with little or no feedback.

> Studies of encouraging students to read rarely measure the actual increase in amount of reading due to the encouragement procedures, and they measure only the ultimate outcome rather than the intermediary enhancement to fluency that would be expected from the increased practice. (NIHCD, 2000, p. 3)

The NRP found 603 unique articles on the topic of independent reading. Similar to the previous set of criteria for selecting studies, the Panel included only:

1. Studies that appeared to consider the effect of encouraging students to read more on reading achievement.
2. Studies that focused on reading education with students in kindergarten through grade 12.
3. Studies that had appeared in a refereed journal.
4. Studies that had been carried out with English language reading.

The search resulted in 603 articles on instruction on the various approaches to encouraging independent reading practice. After screening, the panel attempted to locate 92 articles for consideration. After imposing all levels of criteria, only 14 studies were left for potential consideration. The panel members also reviewed 37 qualitative studies to check for consistency of findings with those analyzed in the meta-analysis.

The NRP indicated that the procedures outlined in most of the studies required students to read silently on their own with no monitoring for approximately 20 minutes per day. Students selected their own material, and had no discussion or written assignment tied to this reading. Few studies monitored the amount of reading that students actually did in the programs; therefore, “it is unclear whether the interventions actually led to more reading or just displaced other reading that students might have done otherwise” (NIHCD, 2000, p. 3).

The Panel found that many of the studies suffered from especially weak research designs. Although they met the selection criteria, they could not be analyzed because of serious methodological or reporting flaws that weakened their results. Thus, they did not perform a meta-analysis of this data. Their concern was that the findings could be misleading given the very limited data set that would be used for the analysis.

Most educators would not argue that teachers should encourage students to engage in voluntary reading and that if they did this successfully, better reading achievement would result. Unfortunately, research has not clearly demonstrated this relationship. Therefore, the panel reported:

> Despite widespread acceptance of the idea that schools can successfully encourage students to read more and that these increases in the amount of reading practice will be translated into better fluency and higher reading achievement, there is not adequate evidence to sustain this claim. (NIHCD, 2000, p. 3)

Four years following publication of the NRP, Therrien (2004) conducted another meta-analysis that identified important instructional components within repeated reading interventions. Effect sizes were calculated for either nontransfer measures (i.e., measures of students' ability to fluently read or comprehend the same passage after reading it multiple times) or transfer measures (i.e., measures of students' ability to fluently read or comprehend a new passage after having read different passages multiple times). The first component clarified as one essential instructional component of repeated reading is that students read passages aloud to an adult. Fluency and comprehension effect sizes for students in transfer interventions conducted by adults were more than three times larger than those conducted by peers. Second, students should be provided with a cue, either prior to or during reading, to focus on either fluency, comprehension, or both. Third, passages should be repeated three to four times. Mean fluency effect size increases were more than 30% larger than when the passage was read twice. Reading the passage more than four times does not appear to be necessary in that gains in comprehension ceased to be significant

after the third reading. A final finding of Therrien's is that corrective feedback should be provided and passages should be read until a performance criterion is reached. Interventions that used performance goals obtained a mean fluency effect size increase that was more than four times larger than that obtained by interventions that used a fixed number of readings.

Two literature syntheses reported on the practice of repeated readings as an intervention for students with learning disabilities (LD). The findings of Chard and colleagues' (2002) review strongly suggested the use of fluency-building activities, including repeated reading, for students with learning disabilities. A more recent review by Chard and colleagues (2009) reported that "repeated reading has not been evaluated against the rigorous quality standards needed to justify the title of 'evidence-based" (p. 266). Eleven studies were evaluated using the criteria set forth by Gersten and colleagues (2005) and Horner and colleagues (2005). Based on these rigorous standards, Chard and his colleagues (2009) were reluctant to draw too many conclusions about the implementation of repeated reading practices with students with LD. However, it should be noted that despite this finding, the researchers do not suggest that teachers stop implementing repeated reading. They noted that this practice is a "logical extension of multiple theoretical frameworks that suggest its use in supporting students who need fluency development" and that "meta-analyses suggest that the practice positively affects fluency outcomes for students who are building fluency" (p. 278).

Review of Post NRP Fluency Studies

The purpose of this review consists of two parts. Part 1: To review, critique, and synthesize research conducted after publication of the NRP associated with variables related to both classroom instruction and oral reading fluency. Part 2: To review, critique, and synthesize research associated with curriculum analyses of reading instruction in core reading programs. The following review objectives will be considered.

Review Objectives

1. Identify previous studies that have been conducted to ascertain the effects of instructional practices on oral reading fluency.
2. Identify studies that have been conducted to describe reading instruction in core reading programs.
3. Identify and discuss specific strengths and weaknesses of previous studies.
4. Synthesize the information and discuss areas for further research.

Article Selection Procedure

A search in the reference section of edited volumes of reading research published after 2000 identified chapters on the topic of reading fluency. A hand-search of the bibliographies of those chapters yielded articles related to this topic.

Using Utah State University and the University of Utah libraries, Internet-based searches were conducted using ERIC, EBSCO Host, Academic Search Premier, Digital Dissertations, Professional Development Collection, PsychINFO, Education Full Text, and Google Scholar. The following keywords were used:

Part 1: Oral reading fluency, reading fluency, guided oral reading, repeated reading

Part 2: Basal reading programs, core reading programs, basal readers, basal programs and fluency

Using these descriptors, electronic searches were conducted of the following peer-reviewed journals: *American Educational Research Journal, Educational Psychologist, Elementary School Journal, Journal of Education, Journal of Educational Psychology, Journal of Educational Research, Journal of Learning Disabilities Research and Practice, Journal of Literacy Research, Journal of Reading, Journal of Research in Reading, Journal of School Psychology, Journal of Special Education, Learning Disability Quarterly, Literacy Research and*

Instruction, Reading Improvement, Reading Psychology, Reading Research Quarterly, Review of Educational Research, Scientific Studies of Reading and *The Reading Teacher.* To qualify for inclusion in this review, each article had to meet the following criteria:

1. The article was written in English.
2. The study was published in a peer-reviewed education, psychology, or literacy journal or in a research handbook.
3. The study examined either of the following:
    (a) reading fluency instruction at the elementary school level since 2000.
    (b) content of reading instruction in core reading programs.
4. The study was completed and published within the last ten years (since 2000).
5. Studies had to be accessible through Utah State University or University of Utah Libraries or on the Internet.

Studies were excluded from the review for the following:

1. The study did not relate to the topic of reading fluency or core reading programs.
2. The article was not available online or through Utah State University or University of Utah Libraries.

After identifying actual studies conducted after 2000 and eliminating overlapping search listings, over 30 studies were located. In an effort to reduce the number of studies further and to match the grade levels of the core reading programs to be reviewed, the search was then limited to those studies that included only second and third grade students. Several studies analyzed only the effects of differing text types and genres and did not include fluency instruction. These studies were also eliminated. Thus, a total of 18 studies were identified that met the criteria for inclusion in Part 1.

Part 2 search produced only two studies that analyzed the content of CRPs published after 2000. In order to broaden the review, studies conducted prior to 2000 were included, yielding a

total of 20 studies that will be discussed later.

Review Procedures

In order to meet the objectives of this review, each study was read, categorized as oral reading fluency instruction or core reading program, and analyzed according to characteristics related to study outcomes. A coding sheet was developed for each set of studies to document and aid in the collection and analysis of data. During this process, the coding sheets were modified and updated as needed. Information from the coding sheet was synthesized in order to make conclusions on this topic.

Part 1: Reading Fluency Studies (Post NRP)

The following is a summary of the findings of the studies that reviewed fluency instruction that were published after 2000. (See Appendix A: Frequency Table Post NRP Studies and Appendix B: Data Summary of Post NRP Studies.)

The NRP (NICHD, 2000) concluded that guided oral reading procedures were moderately effective with a mean effect size (*ES*) of .41. Evidence from the studies suggests that repeated reading procedure has a clear impact on the reading ability of nonimpaired readers at least through grade 4, as well as on students with various kinds of reading problems throughout high school and recommended that they be used to supplement reading instruction in the regular classroom. All studies included in this portion of the review included some form of guidance in the form of modeling, scaffolded or guided practice and/or feedback. All but three of the 18 studies specifically identified repeated reading of text as part of the treatment. Analyses of the group experimental studies that compared results to a control group reported that the treatment groups outperformed the control groups on fluency measures; however, only four of the studies reported that the gains were significant.

A study with a large number of participants (209 or 22% of total sample) was conducted by Stahl, Heubach, and Cramond (2005). This study reported on FORI, a 2-year project designed to reorganize basal reading instruction to stress fluent reading and automatic word recognition. The reorganized reading program included several components: (a) teacher initiation of a text with modeling of fluent reading, comprehension, and review of key vocabulary; (b) partner rereading of the text; (c) teacher-led choral and/or echoic reading; and (d) home reading. Over two years of program implementation, students made significantly greater than expected growth in reading achievement in all 14 classes. All but two children who entered second grade reading at a primer level or higher (and half of those who did not) were reading at grade level or higher by the end of the year. Growth in fluency and accuracy appeared to be consistent over the whole year.

Word practice interventions. Six studies (33%) combined word and phrase level interventions with repeated or guided oral reading fluency instruction. In two studies by Vadasy, Sanders, and Peyton (2006) students received word analysis and phonics instruction followed by reading practice with a high percentage of words that matched the word study. The results from these analyses showed that the intervention group significantly outperformed the control group on reading efficiency. Students also significantly outperformed controls at posttest in spelling and comprehension. LeVasseur, Macaruso, and Shankweiler (2008) compared the effects of repeated reading of standard text, phrased parsed text, and word lists. Their findings indicate that repeated readings with text resulted in greater gains in fluency than repeated readings with word lists. Reading with natural prosody was most strongly facilitated by repeated readings of phrase-cued text, which provided visible support for sentence structure.

The four studies that provided feedback at the word or phrase level also reported gains in oral reading fluency rates. Eckert, Dunn, and Ardoin (2006) suggested that providing participants with performance feedback regarding the number of words read incorrectly produced the greatest

gains in oral reading fluency for the majority of the participants than feedback which focused on words read correctly. Begeny, Daly, and Valleley (2006) and Martens and colleagues (2007) combined repeated reading with phrase drill feedback and concluded the combination of both produced substantial improvements in oral reading fluency relative to baseline and control conditions. They also implied that their data suggest that this type of instruction is more effective for children reading beyond the preprimer level or those with stronger early reading skills (e.g., phonological awareness, sight word vocabulary).

Guided oral reading while reading. Described as a form of unison reading between teacher and student, the NIM was cited by the NRP as an instructional approach to fluency. Flood and colleagues (2005) conducted two separate studies modeled after the work done in the 1960s by Heckelman. In both studies, students made statistical gains in oral reading fluency, silent reading fluency, and comprehension. In oral reading fluency, the students' scores significantly increased from an average of 96.7 words correct per minute to 112 words correct per minute ($p <$ .0001) in the first study. The second study incorporated a comprehension component of retelling and question answering. In this study, oral-reading fluency increased from a pre-assessment average of 62.4 words correct per minute to 87.3 words correct per minute ($p < .001$). Silent reading fluency increased from a preassessment average of 88.6 words correct per minute to 114 words correct per minute ($p < .01$), and comprehension increased from a pre-assessment average of 2.5 questions correct to 4.2 ($p < .001$).

Guided repeated oral reading with performance. Readers' theatre uses the components of guided repeated oral reading while students rehearse plays, speeches, poems or other appropriate text until they are able to perform it fluently and with expression for an audience; however, this practice is not mentioned specifically in the NRP. Two studies (11%) were located that studied the effect of Readers' Theatre. Corcoran and Davis (2005) used multiple measures to determine that readers' theater is effective in improving student interest in reading,

confidence in reading, and overall fluency in number of words read correctly per minute. Keehn (2003) also used multiple measures to determine the effects of readers' theatre. Students in both treatment groups at all levels of ability made statistically significant gains; however, there was no significant differences between students who received readers theater plus explicit instruction in aspects of fluency and students who received only the readers' Theater intervention.

Repeated reading vs. nonrepetitive. In its "direction for further research" section, the NRP (NICHD, 2000) identified a need for rigorous evaluations of the effectiveness of encouraging wide reading on reading achievement. Five studies located (28%) compared the effects of guided repeated reading with some form of nonrepetitive (wide) reading. Three of the studies compared the effects of repeated oral reading of text with non-repetitive oral reading and two studies compared the effects of repeated reading with silent/independent reading.

Using group experimental design, three studies (17%) reported that both repeated and non-repetitive treatment groups outperformed the control groups. In Kuhn's first study (2005), the students in the repeated reading and non-repetitive reading groups demonstrated greater growth in terms of the number of correct words read per minute at their instructional levels than did either the students in the listening-only group or the controls. The second study by Kuhn (Kuhn & Schwanenflugel, 2006) had the largest sample size of the studies reviewed in which 349 second graders (36%) received either the FORI treatment of guided repeated oral reading or guided non-repetitive reading of three different texts. The analyses indicated a significant improvement in text reading skill for children receiving the wide-reading intervention, $t(23) = 2.30$, $p = .031$, but not for children receiving the FORI intervention, $t(23) = .94$, $p = .360$, compared to control children. However, the two studies found significant improvements in children's reading comprehension scores for both the FORI intervention, $t(23) = 2.28$, $p = .032$, and wide-reading intervention, $t(23) = 2.62$, $p = .016$, compared to control children. An analysis contrasting the relative effectiveness of the approaches yielded no significant differences between the two

approaches on oral reading fluency. There were no significant differences between the wide-reading and FORI approaches on reading comprehension at the end of the year, t (23) = .26, p = .795. The researchers suggested that the two approaches were similarly effective in promoting skills related to the development of reading fluency.

O'Connor and colleagues (2007) conducted another study with a sample of 48 second and fourth graders (5% of sample) who were identified as learning disabled. Both treatment groups received one-on-one oral reading practice in either repeated reading or continuous, non-repetitive reading. For students in the treatment conditions, growth curve analyses revealed significant differences in fluency and reading comprehension over students in the control. When comparisons were made between repeated and continuous reading, none of the effect sizes across measures exceeded .25, indicating no significant differences between the two treatment practice conditions.

Silent/independent reading. The NRP's findings on silent or independent reading were inconclusive due to design or reporting flaws of the studies. Two more recent studies that reviewed results of silent or independent reading met the criteria for this review. Yurick, Robinson, Cartledge, Lo, and Evans (2006) conducted a series of three studies that used multiple-baseline designs to research the effects of silent reading. One of the studies included 18 third grade students. The students read silently for 10 minutes, receiving no help or guidance, after which fluency gains were measured. Three weeks later, partner repeated reading was introduced in which students worked together in pairs to read an assignment passage for 10 minutes by taking turns every other paragraph. The experimenter monitored and provided feedback to the students. The target students went from 58.7 WPM (range 29.5-81.6) in the silent reading phase to an "approximate" group mean of 121 to 127 WPM, suggesting that repeated reading with guidance resulted in better fluency gains.

At the National Reading Conference, Kamil (2007) presented the findings of a 2-year

quasi-experimental study that reported the effects of recreational reading (any reading at home or at school when instruction does not occur, e.g. lunch, recess, after school, etc.). In total 4,480 students in six elementary schools received the intervention and 2,000 students in 3 schools served as the control group. Sixty-one percent of the students were classified as ELL. Similar to other wide reading projects, no restrictions on book selections were imposed. The students completed reading logs in which entries were approved by either teachers or parents. Participants read an average of 2,289 pages. SAT9, CAT, PPVT, and DIBELS-like measures were used for pre/post and mid testing. Data was also collected through the use of parent interviews and classroom observations. On any measure of the standardized tests, no significant effects were reported between the intervention and the control schools. Kamil reported that at one bilingual school with a high percentage of Spanish speakers, the students in grades 2 and 3 did better in fluency. Year 2 of the study similarly reported no effects as well.

In a follow-up study that included 2000 students in three schools, Kamil (2007) incorporated similar variables but included professional development for teachers in the use of teaching informational text. The study included three groups: In the first school, the teachers received a large quantity of expository books along with professional development on how to instruct reading using expository texts. Teachers in the second school received only informational books, and teachers in the third school (control group) received neither the books nor the professional development. The first school improved fluency over schools with just the books and the control. Significant effects on the comprehension measures were reported for the first school as well. The school with no professional development and the control group showed equal gains in both fluency and comprehension. Kamil concluded that coupled with instruction, recreational reading has positive effects on fluency and comprehension. He further stated that “recreational reading in and of itself has no effect on achievement; however, instruction can leverage recreational reading. Teachers and instruction are the critical variables in recreational reading- not

the books, not the print exposure" (Kamil, 2007, conference video transcription).

Reutzel and colleagues conducted a study in 2008 to address three of the NRP's criticisms of studies concerning the efficacy of silent sustained reading. These included: (a) use of control or comparison groups that used evidence-based fluency practices, (b) controlling the amount of time spent reading, and (c) examining the use of texts with differing levels of difficulty. A total of 72 third graders in four classrooms rotated every 9 weeks between two reading fluency treatments for an entire school year. In the silent reading treatment, the students read widely from multiple genres, were monitored by the teacher, and received feedback from the teacher at least weekly. The students read independently from self-selected, independent text. The students in the guided repeated reading treatment read orally and repeatedly from grade-level texts selected by the teacher. Students received feedback daily from a peer or the teacher. Students in both groups received the same amounts of explicit fluency instruction, feedback, and practice. All four classroom teachers taught from the same core reading program. At-home reading was tracked by each teacher as well.

Pre and posttest gain scores were used to determine the fluency and comprehension progress of the students. There were no significant differences between the silent reading treatments and the guided repeated oral reading treatments in the areas of accuracy (21% average decrease in the mean number of errors), rate (27% average increase in the number of words read correctly), expression (20% average increase in mean expression rating scores for students), and comprehension (43% average increase in the proportion of number of idea units recalled per wcpm). In conclusion, the results of this study provide evidence that guided silent nonrepetitive reading improves third-grade students' fluency and comprehension growth as effectively as guided repeated oral reading (GROR).

Conclusion of Part 1. Several conclusions can be made from this portion of studies review. First, intentional fluency instruction that includes teacher modeling, guidance, and

feedback further validate the findings of the NRP as practices that positively improve students' abilities to read fluently. A major finding of this review is that both repeated reading of text and wide reading of text, when accompanied with guidance and feedback, are similarly effective in building reading fluency in second and third grade students. Second, the use of Readers' Theatre as a practice for providing students with opportunities for guided practice reading text expressively for the purpose of performing for others is both motivating and effective in building fluency. Another finding from this review confirms that the NIM positively affects reading fluency and comprehension. The fourth and final finding from this review adds to the limited research on independent reading. Evidence indicates that silent, independent reading coupled with scaffolded delivery of fluency instruction that includes teacher modeling, guidance, and feedback may be as effective as repeated and wide reading practices using similar scaffolded instruction. The results of these studies provide the beginnings of converging evidence that *scaffolded silent reading* approaches may be viable alternatives for promoting reading fluency and comprehension growth in third-grade and above (Rasinski et al., 2011).

Part 2: Content Analysis of Core Reading Programs

Twenty studies were located that analyzed the content of basal programs, half of which were conducted in the 30 years prior to 2000. The following is a brief summary of those studies followed with a more detailed description of two studies that analyzed reading instruction in several core reading programs published after 2000.

Grade levels. Six studies, or 30%, included content review of all grade levels in the basal program in order to report the full spectrum of instruction in the elementary grades. In order to review material across grade levels, an additional four studies included material from a primary (1^{st} - 2^{nd}), a middle grade (3^{rd} - 4^{th}) and an upper elementary grade (5^{th} -6^{th}). This means that half of the studies included findings that reviewed content at a variety of levels.

Of all the grades, first grade was represented more than any other grade. In fact, first grade materials were reviewed in 10 or half of the studies. Six of the studies (30%) reviewed only first-grade content. This may be attributed to the high percentage of studies intending to report on phonics instruction and the readability level of texts used with beginning readers. It may also be attributed to the importance of those beginning reading skills.

It should be noted that ten or 50% of the studies included reviews of second grade material; however, this grade level was not included in the studies that analyzed core programs published after publication of the NRP in 2000. In 2005, Hiebert argued the importance of including grade two materials relative to fluency instruction. She selected this grade intentionally to study the effects of text difficulty on second graders' fluency development because

> it is the period when students' reading rates increase substantially. Regardless of their achievement level, second graders gain an average of 40 words per minute in reading speed (Hasbrouck&Tindal,1992). By contrast, the average gain in third grade is 20 words per minute, in fourth grade 3 words, and in fifth grade, 9 words. (p. 190)

Programs. Thirteen programs were identified in the different studies. Four of the studies (20%) did not name the specific programs. Most studies reviewed multiple programs; however, the number per study ranged from one (Beck, 1977) to as many as seven (Stein, Johnson, & Gutlohn, 1999). Houghton Mifflin was reviewed more than the other programs with 12 frequencies (60%). Other programs with a high number of reviews include Scott Foresman, MacMillan-McGraw Hill, and Harcourt, each with 10 frequencies, and Silver Burdett/Ginn identified in nine of the studies.

Reading components. Ten, or half of the studies (50%), reviewed comprehension instruction in the basal programs. Specific comprehension elements reviewed included main idea, story structure, and cause/effect. The study by Durkin (1983) described the match between actual classroom instruction with that of the instruction outlined and suggested in the program. Reading elements with the fewest number of frequencies were vocabulary and writing with 2 (10%) and 1

(5%), respectively.

Nine of the studies (45%) analyzed the text used with the program. Two studies (10%) compared the ratio between text types, namely expository versus narrative. The other seven studies (35%) focused on the readability levels of the text that students would encounter with the programs. Most of these studies also reviewed the phonics/spelling instruction relative to text features. The studies looked at the match between the phonics instruction and the use of decodable text-sentences and stories composed of words that use the sound-spelling correspondences that children have already learned plus a limited number of sight words.

Fluency studies. Two studies were located that included an analysis of oral reading fluency instruction. The study published by Hoffman and colleagues (1994) that reviewed five first-grade programs is the only study published during the 30-year period from 1970 to 2000 that made any reference to oral reading fluency. The researchers indicated that these series "offered a shared reading model in which the teacher reads the story aloud to the students; the teacher and students read the story together (to build fluency); and the students read the story again (and again) either independently, or in pairs, or in small groups" (p, 14). A study published the same year by Reutzel, Hollingsworth, and Eldredge (1994) provided further evidence that the use of shared reading is an effective practice for developing not only reading fluency but also word analysis skills, vocabulary, and comprehension in young readers.

The second study reviewing oral reading fluency instruction was conducted by McGill-Franzen and colleagues (2006) 14years later and reported that oral reading fluency was rarely taught in either of the two core reading programs they reviewed. Further details of this study are provided in the next section. (See Appendix C: Summary of Core Reading Program Studies.)

Summary of Programs Published Since 2000

Two studies were located that analyzed the content of core reading programs that were published after publication of the NRP in 2000. Both of these studies reported on the content of comprehension instruction, but only one reported on other areas which included vocabulary, fluency, and writing. Both studies included a description of the explicitness of lesson delivery as outlined in the programs.

Review Procedures

In order to meet the objectives of this section of the review, each study was read and analyzed according to characteristics related to study outcomes. A coding sheet was developed to document and aid in the collection and analysis of data. During this process, the coding sheet was modified and updated as needed. Information from the coding sheet was synthesized in order to make conclusions on this topic.

Study Characteristics

The information is organized into the following three categories:

1. Sample and Methods: Publisher, grade level, and sample size.
2. Content Findings
3. Instructional Delivery Model Findings

Sample Characteristics

Publishers. Dewitz and colleagues (2009) reviewed the five most widely used core programs in 2007 which included Harcourt Trophies, Scott Foresman Reading, McGraw-Hill Reading, Houghton Mifflin Reading, and Open Court Reading. Four of the programs were published in 2005 and one was published in 2003. Subsequent analysis suggested that the 2005 copyright of that one was almost identical to the 2003 series. McGill-Franzen and colleagues

(2006) indicated that specific program names were not revealed because the intent is not to highlight specific programs' strengths and weaknesses but rather to describe the way in which programs address reading instruction indicating that "the recent tradition in evaluating core reading programs that began with Durkin has avoided reporting results by specific programs" (p. 106). Thus, it is not known if both studies reviewed the same programs.

Grades. The study by McGill-Franzen and colleagues (2006) reviewed only third-grade material. The study by Dewitz and colleagues (2009) focused on grades 3 through 5, indicating the reason for selecting these grade levels was that although comprehension instruction should certainly be cultivated and facilitated in the primary grades, it would be expected to see a greater emphasis on direct comprehension instruction in third through fifth grades.

Sampling. One study (McGill-Franzen et al., 2006) looked at 3 weeks of reading instruction, each at different times of the year. The first week of instruction in each of the two series was established as a base point. In an effort to represent changes in instruction across an academic year, a second week of instruction was chosen from mid-year, and a third week of instruction from the end of the year. Each of the three weeks contained 5 days of lessons multiplied by two programs yielding approximately 30 lessons.

An analytic code was developed only for the teachers' manual that analyzed all instructional elements linked to the main instructional reading passage from each basal program. All student texts were scanned in order to accurately determine word counts, lexiles, and readability levels. The researchers met weekly to randomly check for inter-rater reliability. Codings were discussed and debated until agreement on operational definitions for each set of codes was made.

Dewitz and colleagues (2009) read every lesson in each of the five basal reading programs, as it was presented in the teacher manuals. Each program contained six units or themes per grade level, with approximately three to five lessons per unit/theme, amounting to

approximately 20-30 lessons per grade level of instruction. Thus, approximately 90 lessons per program were read and rated.

In an effort to establish inter-rater reliability, three researchers independently coded two complete lessons from each of the five programs for a total of 10 lessons. Overall agreement between each pair of coders was 81% between Coders 1 and 2, 84% between Coders 2 and 3, and 83% between Coders 1 and 3. When discrepancies were encountered, they were resolved through discussion. Discrepancies in lesson coding were recoded. This process was repeated three more times during the reading and coding of the teachers' manuals, and reliability was checked on 10% of the lessons.

Content of instruction. Dewitz and his colleagues (2009) analyzed comprehension instruction found in five different CRPs. The researchers concluded that all five reading programs include comprehension skills and strategies that do not appear on the NRP's (NICHD, 2000) recommendations nor are they found in the RAND Reading Study Group (2002) report. The researchers identified four patterns that emerged from the study: (a) the programs divided skills or strategies into components to be taught separately; (b) many comprehension skills and strategies are identified under multiple labels; (c) often, elements of genre and text structure are labeled as comprehension skills (e.g. author's purpose, reality and fantasy, and graphic aids); and (d) many modes of responding to text are labeled comprehension skills and strategies.

McGill-Franzen and colleagues (2006) indicated that both programs specified the teaching of word analysis, vocabulary, fluency, comprehension, and writing. The topics in both programs were similar; however, the attention to the topics varied. The highest percentage of instruction was devoted to text comprehension (35%-68%). However, Program C included significantly more segments dealing with comprehension than did Program F (ES = -2.54, p = .02), and significantly more questions, particularly interpretive questions (ES = -3.98, p = <.01). About 13%-14% of instruction was devoted to vocabulary development significantly more in

Program F (*ES* = 2.05, *p* = .03). Phonics and spelling were emphasized more in one series (20%) at the beginning of the manual but, by the end, the focus was similar, with no significant differences in the frequency.

This same study included fluency as part of the analysis; however, it makes only two references to fluency instruction. First, that one program provided word-level activities and repeated passage readings that facilitated automaticity and fluency and another statement indicating that "fluency was rarely taught in either program (less than 5% of all instruction), but Program F included significantly more fluency segments (*ES* = 4.16, *p* = <.01)" (McGill-Franzen et al., 2006, p. 74).

It should be noted, though, that a second part of this study compared scores on a state reading assessment of students in these and three other core programs. The researchers indicated that significantly more third grades in schools with Program F (more fluency segments) scored at the highest level of a state reading assessment. The researchers reasoned that "to the extent that Program F disrupts the cycle of underachievement by providing word-level activities and repeated passage readings that facilitate automaticity and fluency at the beginning of third grade, this program would have an advantage over Program C" (McGill-Franzen et al., 2006, p. 81).

Instructional delivery model. In 1981, Durkin coined the term "mentioning" to describe comprehension instruction. Dewitz and colleagues (2009) indicated that few of the instructional segments would be classified as mere "mentioning;" rather, the teachers' manuals tended to provide some explanation of its value or its procedure. However, these explanations were not "direct" in the sense that the program did not provide declarative, procedural, and conditional information. In two programs, A and E, when the program suggested that a teacher stop and re-teach a skill or strategy, direct explanation could occur in the midst of reading a selection. Consequently, Program A (14.9%) and E (7.2%) included the highest proportion of direct explanation. The other three programs included fewer incidents of direct explanation: Program B

included 4.3%, Program C included 5.3%, and Program D included 2.6%.

The five core programs differed in the amount of modeling provided for the students. Programs B (7.9%) and C (6.2%) provided more modeling than did the other three programs. In Programs A (2.5%), D (3.7%), and E (1.7%), the directives to model occurred when the strategy or skill was first introduced or reviewed. Programs B and C included modeling in their initial and review instruction, but they also provided directions to model skills and strategies during the reading of the selections. The researchers felt the importance to note that the teacher's directions rarely, if ever, suggested that the students model the skill (Dewitz et al., 2009).

The study also compared the amount of guided practice outlined in the programs. This would include the teacher giving students hints, prompts, and suggestions on how to understand a passage or use a strategy or skill. The amount of guided practice varied amongst programs. Programs C and D included the highest proportion of guided practice, 18.4% and 17.9%, respectively. The other three programs included significantly smaller proportions of guided practice: 7.9% for Program A, 3.1% for Program B, and 6.7% for Program E.

In that workbook and worksheet activities were not reviewed, the amount of independent practice was somewhat limited. However, a difference was noted in the proportion of independent practice among the five programs. Programs A and B included the highest proportions, 9.7% and 13.7%, respectively, with Program C including 5.4%, Program D 5.7%, and Program E 6.5% (Dewitz et al., 2009).

The second study reported that the percentage of instruction in both programs that included preparation, intentional instruction, application, practice and review amounted to as little as 12%-16% of instructional time. However, the language suggested for instruction appeared significantly more explicit in one manual, with effect sizes of 1.91 ($p = .04$). It was also noted that most instructional segments were related to the text read (55%-78%), but only half of these segments took place during the reading of the text (McGill-Franzen et al., 2006).

Conclusion of Part 2. This section of the review identified 10 content analysis studies which were completed on basal or CRPs in the past decade; however, only two analyses reviewed material published after 2000. The studies identified a wide range of instruction in reading, particularly comprehension, phonics, and text features. The three studies that listed fluency outcomes were limited to review of kindergarten, first, and third grades materials. One study linked the content of instruction to student outcomes. McGill-Franzen and colleagues (2006) analyzed two programs and claimed that although fluency was rarely taught in one of the programs, the authors attributed, to some degree, better student reading outcomes on the Florida state assessment to this program's incorporation of evidence-based fluency reading practices.

Summary

This review of literature provides several points of interest for the education field concerning fluency instruction. First, it provides strong, converging evidence as to the methods and content of fluency instruction that positively affect reading achievement in young children. Three meta-analyses which reviewed more than 60 studies dating back to the mid 1980s as well as studies published within the last ten years clearly substantiate the use of repeated reading accompanied with guidance and feedback from abled readers as a means for helping young students become fluent readers. Although somewhat less well documented, more recent studies also indicate a second group of fluency instruction practices that encourage students to orally read more text fewer times while receiving modeling of fluent reading, guided practice, and feedback had similar and equally positive effects on students' fluency and comprehension development. A third effective fluency instructional method with converging evidence is silent reading a variety of texts. Similar to the two previous methods, teacher modeling, guided reading of text, and corrective feedback are critical components for improving student reading abilities when employing silent reading fluency practice.

The second part of the literature reviewed was a discussion of research findings concerning recent content analyses of CRPs. Ten analyses were conducted in the past ten years which, when compared to the same number of studies published in the previous thirty-year period, represented a three-fold increase. Past and current evidence indicates that CRPs exert considerable influence on what teachers do (Anderson et al., 1985; Durkin, 1981; Hoffman et al., 1998). Thus it follows that to understand why teachers do what they do, there is an increasing interest in the education field to identify instructional practices outlined in reading instruction programs used in classrooms. Unfortunately, only two of the analyses reported in this review analyzed CRPs that were published after 2000 and these two analyses reported little or no fluency instruction. The past dearth of findings related to fluency instruction argue strongly for the need a current need to analyze the quantity and quality of fluency instruction offered in current CRPs, especially with the rising interest in providing effective fluency practice and instruction in school classrooms post NRP (2000) and given the precipitous use of the DIBELS Oral Reading Fluency assessment in today's schools. It is typically in the second grade when students' make the greatest gains in their reading rates (Hasbrouck &Tindal, 2006; Hiebert, 2005). As a consequence, the fluency instruction provided to second grade students seems especially pivotal. These gaps in the research on the quantity and quality of fluency instruction provided in currently adopted CRPs warrant the conduct of the proposed study.

CHAPTER III

METHODS AND PROCEDURES

The purpose of this study was to conduct a content analysis to describe and summarize the reading fluency instruction provided in recently published and widely used CRPs. "Perhaps the fastest-growing technique in quantitative research," content analysis, as defined by Berelson, is the "systematic, objective, quantitative analysis of message characteristics" (Neuendorf, 2002, pp. 1-2). Krippendorff (2004) challenged this definition by stating that although quantification is important in many scientific endeavors; qualitative methods have proven successful as well. He goes on to say that reading is fundamentally a qualitative process even when it results in numerical accounts and though Berelson intended to ensure that the coding of content analysis data be reliable, "this requirement literally excludes 'reading between the lines,' which is what experts do, often with remarkable intersubjective agreement" (pp. 19-20). In their book, *Mixed Methodology: Combining Qualitative and Quantitative Approaches*, Tashakkori and Teddlie (1998) cited Miles and Huberman, who described qualitative data analysis as having three parts: (a) data reduction, or taking the raw data and simplifying and transforming them using determined codes; (b) data display, which is displaying the data in an organized assembly of information that permits the drawing of conclusions; and (c) conclusion drawing and verification, or deciding what everything means and determining the validity of those conclusions. However, Neuendorf (2002) contended that "although some authors maintain that a 'qualitative' content analysis is feasible, …content analysis has as its goal a numerically based summary of a chosen message set. It is neither a gestalt impression nor a fully detailed description of a message or message set" (p. 14).

Content analysis methods use a set of procedures to make valid inferences from source documents that are about the sender(s) of the message, the message itself, or the audience of the

message (Weber, 1990, p. 9). In that this study is a scientific endeavor, the procedures will align with those procedures appropriate to good science. Neuendorf (2002) outlined a nine-step process that is "typical" of content analysis for research conducted in the tradition of the scientific method (p. 50). This same process was used to guide the procedures of this study which includes: (1) theory and rationale—the what and why, (2) conceptualizations—identifying and defining the categories to be used for coding the study, (3) operationalizations—units of data (measures), (4) coding schemes—description of both the codebook and coding form, (5) sampling, (6) training and pilot reliability, (7) coding , (8) final reliability, and (9) tabulation and reporting.

Integral to this part of the study was to replicate the content analysis procedures of two previously published outstanding content analysis studies of CRPs. These include the study by Dewitz and colleagues (2009), which reviewed comprehension instruction in five CRPs and the study by McGill-Franzen and colleagues (2006), which reviewed several reading components in two CRPs. Both studies reported limited findings on fluency.

Population/Programs

Dewitz and colleagues (2009) reviewed the teachers' manuals of the five best-selling CRPs (according to Education Market Research, 2007),which included the following: McGraw-Hill Reading, SRA Open Court, Harcourt Trophies, Houghton Mifflin Reading, and Scott Foresman Reading Street. Four of the five programs were published in 2005 and one in 2003. Since that study, newer editions have been published. Selecting materials identified as best-selling or top-selling implies that materials which impact the greatest number of classroom teachers across the nation were analyzed. This study reviewed second and third grade teachers' manuals from the latest editions of: Harcourt School Publishers *StoryTown,* 2008; SRA/McGraw-Hill *Imagine It,* 2008; Pearson Scott Foresman *Reading Street,* 2011; Macmillan/McGraw-Hill *Treasures,* 2009; and Houghton Mifflin Harcourt *Journeys,* 2010. As with the study by Dewitz

and colleagues (2009) programs were identified; however, findings of specifically named programs were not revealed. The "intent is not to highlight specific programs' strengths and weaknesses" but rather to describe how top selling CRPs address fluency instruction (p. 106).

For this CRP content analysis of reading fluency instruction, the focus was on grades 2 and 3 because students' growth in fluency rates is greater in these grades than in other grades, e.g., grades 4-6 (Hiebert, 2005). The table of contents of each teacher's manual and the overview of each lesson were referenced by the investigator to identify page numbers of reading fluency lessons. Although each page of every lesson was read for fluency lessons as well as any instruction included in the sidebars, the parts of the lessons that were coded were limited to only those components of the manuals intended for and labeled as "fluency" instruction. The coding was also limited to only instruction that was intended for regular classroom reading instruction. Any instructional segments intended for "special" populations of students were excluded including below-, on-, or advanced levels; English language learners (ELL); gifted students. In addition, any references or facsimiles of literacy centers, worksheets, workbooks, or assessments reproduced in the manuals were also excluded.

Theory and Rationale

The Review of Literature summarized research findings that describe instructional practices that contribute to the improvement of reading fluency in young readers. Research has also established that CRPs influence teachers in their use of methods and materials to instruct reading, and that a majority of elementary schools in the U.S. use a CRP to some extent (Dewitz et al., 2009). In an effort to describe fluency instruction in second and third grade CRPs, and whether or not this instruction is aligned with the evidence-based practices found in recently reported research, this study sought to answer the following questions.

1. How are fluency skills taught? This may include:

a. Recommendations as to how the teacher is to instruct and encourage students to practice these skills.
b. Recommendations for tasks to assist students in learning about and practicing these skills.
c. Patterns of instruction and practice such as consistency, frequency, and duration.

2. How do reading fluency instructional practices in core programs compare to evidence-based reading fluency instructional practices defined in current research?

Conceptualization Categories

In order to answer these two questions, the variables to be reviewed for this study were categorized as either content (what) or delivery (how) and used to describe and compare fluency instruction. These categories were group into five major areas: (a) specific methods of instruction, (b) focus of instruction, (c) instructional delivery, (d) mode of reading, and (e) text encounters.

The first coding area sought to identify evidence-based methods that were named specifically in the teachers' manuals. In their chapter on reading fluency, Rasinski and colleagues (2011) provided a description of the following evidence-based methods for instructing reading fluency.

Fluency-Oriented Reading Instruction

Fluency-oriented reading instruction (FORI) was designed for primary-grade reading and content area reading instruction using selections found in the CRP. The method incorporated oral repeated reading of text over the course of a week. During the first lesson, the teacher reads a selected text aloud while the students follow along with their own copy. This is followed with a group discussion of the text. Over subsequent days, students orally read the selected text several times using echo-, choral-, and partner-reading. The text is taken home and practiced as well.

Wide Reading

Wide reading involves reading a range of new books for fewer repetitions and is usually confined to multiple readings to a single day, lesson or sitting before moving onto a new book the next day. Wide reading also incorporates assisted reading with teacher and partners.

Oral Recitation Lesson

The Oral Recitation Lesson (ORL) consists of the teacher reading text aloud while students followed along with their own copy. Students practiced their assigned part of the text together and independently. The lesson culminates with students reciting the text before the class.

Fluency Development Lesson

The Fluency Development Lesson (FDL) begins with the teacher introducing the text and inviting student predictions. The teacher then reads the text aloud followed with discussions of text comprehension and attributes of fluent reading. Students are then paired for practicing the text and providing feedback to each other. Students are then provided opportunities to perform text reading to classmates.

Shared Book Experience

The Shared Book Experience (SBE) lesson consists of a teacher-led introductory discussion, group guided reading of a big book. Students then read the Big Book multiple times as a class, in pairs, or independently.

Retrieval, Automaticity, Vocabulary, Engagement, and Orthography

The Retrieval, Automaticity, Vocabulary Elaboration, Orthography (RAVE-O) is a fluency intervention designed to develop students' ability to read fluently with comprehension, expand their knowledge of oral and written language, and promote a positive attitude toward

language. Each week, students learn four or five carefully selected core words at the phonemic, orthographic, semantic, syntactic, and morphological levels. Throughout the week's lessons, instruction focuses on developing and connecting these linguistic components and building a repertoire of strategies that students can apply to learning new words.

Scaffolded Silent Reading

Scaffolded Silent Reading (ScSR) makes use of silent reading practice of independent-level texts selected with teacher guidance from a variety of genres that encourages wide reading of text. Daily lessons also incorporate explanation and modeling of fluent reading or use of comprehension strategies. Teacher monitoring of and interaction with individual student is coupled with accountability through completed book responses.

Guided Repeated Oral Reading with Feedback

Guided Repeated Oral Reading with Feedback (GRORF) involves repeated readings with assistance help and feedback from a more abled reader. Usually, a teacher or tutor models appropriate aspects of fluent oral reading followed by various forms of guided practice including choral reading or paired reading. The more abled reader provides verbal feedback based on student performance.

Neurological Impress Method

The Neurological Impress Method (NIM) involves student and teacher reading aloud together in unison. The teacher leads the reading, sitting a little behind the student and speaking directly into the student's right ear while moving a finger along under the text being read. NIM is intended to be multisensory and to provide a mode of accurate reading.

Partner (Buddy) Reading

Partner reading involves student pairs of various ages reading aloud to each other.

Paired Reading

The main difference between paired and partner reading relates to the age and ability of the reading model. In this case, the reading model is typically an adult. In partner reading, the reading model is typically a peer-aged student. For the purposes of this study, paired reading also included the teacher "pairing" a more abled reader with a less abled reader.

Cross-Age Tutoring

Cross-aged tutoring involves an older reader paired with a younger reader.

Taped-Assisted Reading

Similar to the neurological impress method, taped-assisted reading students read a passage while simultaneously listening to the same text being read. In this case, students read while listening to a prerecorded fluent recording of the passage.

Computer-Based Reading

Computer-based reading provide reading assistance such as highlighting of words, pronunciation of unknown words, and multiple ways of representing a word's meaning if requested by the user. Such programs may make use of speech recognition software and multiple levels of texts used in conjunction with repeated reading and progress monitoring to increase students' fluency. These programs also track student progress using automated data storage and retrieval systems of student performance over time.

Readers' Theatre

In readers' theater, students are assigned parts or roles in a play. They rehearse a script in

order to prepare for a later performance. Recitations and radio readings (for use with expository text) are often folded in as alternative ways to perform texts similar to readers' theater.

Second, each instructional move was coded for focus of instruction. By definition, fluency is manifested in accurate, rapid, expressive oral reading that facilitates comprehension of text (Pikulski & Chard, 2005, p. 510); therefore, content variables were limited to rate, accuracy, oral expression and/or comprehension. Though fluency is critical to constructing meaning and comprehension is often considered an attribute of a fluent reader, lesson components that focused on comprehension skill and strategy instruction in the CRP lessons selected were not included in the analysis.

Third, each instructional move was categorized by what the teacher was directed to do. Based on effective, explicit instructional delivery models developed by researchers such as Duffy and colleagues (1986) and Pearson and Dole (1988), the elements of instruction for reading fluency lessons included the following: direct explanation of skill, teacher modeling, guided practice, feedback, independent practice, and application.

Dewitz and colleagues (2009) began with the six categories in Durkin's (1981) rating system as a starting point—preparation, instruction, application, practice, review, and assessment. However, they discovered that these six categories "lacked the sensitivity to capture the nuances of instruction in the core programs" (p. 108). As the researchers reviewed the acts of direct explanation, modeling, guided practice, and opportunities for independent application, they found instructional directions that did not fit Durkin's simple six-category breakdown and thus identified ten categories to code instructional moves. After modifying these categories for fluency instruction the following *a priori*, "before the fact" (Neuendorf, 2002, p. 11) categories were used to code:

1. Skill mentioned: The manual introduces a skill but does not provide further directions, models, explanations, or guided practice.

2. Declarative Knowledge: The manual names the skill and provides a definition or explanation of that skill.

   Example (Program D): "*Remind children that good readers add interest and enjoyment to their reading by reading with expression. They use their voice to communicate the characters' or the author's thoughts and feelings."*

3. Conditional Knowledge: The manual provides reasons why the skill or strategy is important and provides situations when the skill or strategy might be used appropriately.

   Example (Program A): *"Explain that good readers adjust their reading rate based on what they are reading. If the text contains unfamiliar language and topics, students should read at a slower pace. For easy and familiar text, they can speed up their pace."*

4. Procedural knowledge: The manual describes the steps necessary to perform the skill or strategy.

   Example (Program C): *"Explain that reading with expression is using your voice to express feeling. For example, you can read louder and faster to show strong feeling, or you can read softer and slower to show sadness or seriousness."*

5. Modeling + think-aloud: The manual instructs the teacher to model and provides the language for a think-aloud.

   Example (Program E): *"It will be fun to take a longer pause at the dash before I make the wolf's big howl. It will make the howl more of a surprise. I will also think about how the characters of the cow, pig, and duck would sound if they could talk."*

6. Modeling with no language for a think-aloud: The teacher is instructed to model the skill but the manual does not provide the language for a think-aloud.

   Example (Program B): *"Tell children to open to 'Frog and Toad All Year' and track*

the print as you model reading accurately."

7. Guided practice: The manual suggests practices that encourage the teacher and students to practice the skill together as the teacher provides scaffolded supports.

   Example (Program D): *"Reread the sentences chorally with students. Have them follow your lead and the content to adjust their reading rate."*

8. Feedback from teacher: The manual instructs the teacher and/or peers to monitor student acquisition of skill and provides suggestions of possible useful responses to students.

   Example (Program B): *"Monitor the groups as they read. Provide feedback and support, paying particular attention to how readers group ideas, or phrases, together."*

9. Feedback from peer: The manual suggests opportunities for students to either provide or receive feedback to and from peers.

   Example (Program E): *"Have partners take turns echo-reading the passage. Remind children that if their partner makes a mistake, they should give a hint, such as 'sound out this word,' before giving their partner the correct word."*

10. Independent Practice: The manual provides suggestions that foster individual practice.

    Example (Program C): *"On their own-for optimal fluency, students should reread three or four times at an appropriate rate."*

11. Transfer: The manual provides suggestions that foster skill use in unfamiliar texts or situations.

Fourth, instructional moves were coded for the type or mode of reading (if any) that the manual required of the students. Many of the evidence-based methods described earlier included one or more of the following reading modes.

1. No reading-Students listening to text only
2. Listening to text being read while following text
3. Choral reading
4. Echo Reading
5. Partner reading
6. Reading orally and independently (including performance)
7. Reading silently

Fifth and finally, each move was coded for the number of encounters that were suggested that students have with text:

1. Number of repetitions students read text (repeated reading)
2. Number of days across which students read the same text
3. Wide reading (Students read a variety of different texts one time)

A codebook and coding form was created to provide more explicit details on the three types of coding for each instructional move (see Appendix E).

Operationalizatons—Units of Data

One of the most fundamental and important decisions to be considered when conducting a content analysis concerns the definition of the basic unit of text to be classified **(**Weber, 1990). Units are defined a**s** a "message or message component (a) which serves as the basis for identifying the population and drawing a sample, (b) on which variables are measured, or (c) which serves as the basis for reporting analyses" (Neuendorf, 2002, p. 71). Weber (1990) identified six commonly used unit options: word, word sense, sentence, theme, paragraph, and whole text. In order to capture the essence of instruction without being too finite (word level) or too broad (paragraph level) this study used the same unit used in studies by Dewitz and colleagues (2009) and McGill-Franzen and colleagues (2006). The researchers used instructional

moves as units, or segments, bounded by a shift or "change in the type of instruction or topic of instruction" within an identified reading lesson (McGill-Franzen et al., 2006, p. 73) for parsing the language of the teacher's manuals. An instructional move might be contained in a word, phrase or sentence. Thus, a sentence or a paragraph might contain two or more instructional moves, each one being noted and coded. The purpose for coding at the instructional move level was two-fold. First, it provided a means to determine what Dewitz and colleagues (2009) called "density" of lessons. A lesson might consist of just one instructional move or several. For example, one day's lesson that focused on expression, might have one instructional move in which students practiced reading a readers' theatre script in a small group. A more dense lesson that focused on expression might suggest that a teacher offer an explanation of how tending to punctuation may facilitate expressive reading, followed by the teacher modeling expressive reading using a teacher think-aloud, and then ending the lesson with guided practice using echo reading and partner reading. The latter, denser lesson with four instructional moves, had the teacher engaging the students more in reading with expression than did the first lesson. Secondly, the instructional moves enabled the investigator to determine the sequence of lesson components. For instance, in Durkin's 1981 study, it was reported that the programs recommended that students first read the text silently followed by students reading the text orally. Coding instructional moves allowed the investigator to determine if this same order or reading mode occurred in current CRPS.

Coding Schemes

A major goal of this investigation was to provide a description or explanation of fluency instruction outlined in CRPs in a way that avoids the biases of the investigator. This translates to stable and consistent coding conducted by the investigator across all programs, lessons, and instructional moves as well as inter-rater reliability or level of agreement among two or more

coders. In content analysis, reliability problems often grow out of the "ambiguity of word meanings, category definitions, or other coding rules" (Weber, 1990, p.15). Following an *a priori* (i.e., "before the fact") design, a codebook and coding form was constructed which included all decisions on variables, their measurement, and coding rules before the observations began (Neuendorf, 2002). All measures for coding were fully explicated in the codebook that corresponds to the coding form. Spaces were provided for recording the codes for all variables measured. The intent was to create a codebook and coding form that could stand alone as a protocol for analyzing the text and which made the set so complete and unambiguous as to almost eliminate the individual differences among coders (see Appendix D).

Sampling

Teachers' editions of all five CRPs were obtained from various school districts and the Utah State Office of Education. The table of contents and weekly lesson guides were located and read to identify page numbers designated as containing FLUENCY instruction. These pages were tagged for selection. Next, each page of the manual that contained instructional procedures was scanned. Any page containing instruction labeled FLUENCY was tagged as well. The manual was scanned page-by-page a second time to ensure that no lessons were overlooked, During this second scanning, a label was attached to the lesson identifying the publisher, theme/unit, week/lesson, day, and page number. Each page was then photocopied for manageability purposes and timely use of borrowed instructional materials. The photocopies were placed in binders according to publisher and grade level resulting in a total of ten binders.

Next, each lesson in each binder was numbered, beginning with 1, so that a random sample could be identified for inter-rater reliability. Originally, the intent of this study was to code each lesson; however, upon totaling the sum of lesson counts, it was discovered that a total of 1,822 lessons had been identified and copied. Realizing the magnitude of coding and analyzing

this number of lessons, it was determined that a sample of 20% (366) of the lessons would be more manageable and still reveal similar information.

In order to select a stratified-random sample of fluency lessons across the five publishing programs and both grade levels, the following procedure was implemented.

1. All the lessons were numbered in each program beginning with number one. The number of lessons in each CRP ranged from 162-235 and 91-209 in grades 2 and 3 respectively. Lessons totaled 1,035 in grade 2 and 787 in grade 3.
2. A random number generator (www.random.org) was used to generate a separate list of random integers for each CRP and grade level. Each list represented three times the total in the study sample. Thus, a CRP with 200 lessons identified had a number list generated of 600 numbers.
3. Beginning with the first number on the list, the lessons that matched the corresponding numbers were pulled for inclusion in the study. This was continued until 20% of the studies were identified. A total of 366 lessons were identified for inclusion in the study sample.
4. Continuing with the same list of generated numbers, an additional set of lessons representing 10% of the sample were selected to be used for a reliability check.

Two lessons from each CRP and grade were also selected and used for training purposes in the use of the coding form. Table 1 presents a breakdown of frequencies of the total coding sample, reliability sample, and practice sample from the five programs.

Training and Pilot Reliability

A doctoral student at a nearby university who is also preparing to conduct a content analysis of CRPs and has had previous experience coding with other research projects, agreed to code samples for reliability. This doctoral student was trained by the investigator in the use of the

Table 1

Frequencies of Total Coding Sample, Reliability Sample, and Practice Sample from Five CRPs' Teachers' Editions

Variable	Grade	Program A *f*	Program B *f*	Program C *f*	Program D *f*	Program E *f*	Total *f*
Total lessons located	2nd	222	203	235	162	213	1035
Study sample	2nd	44	41	47	32	43	207
Reliability (10% of sample)	2nd	5	4	5	3	4	21
Reliability practice	2nd	2	2	2	2	2	10
Total lessons located	3rd	188	200	209	99	91	787
Study sample	3rd	38	40	42	20	19	159
Reliability (10% of sample	3rd	4	4	4	2	2	16
Reliability practice	3rd	2	2	2	2	2	10
Total Sample		82	81	89	52	62	366

coding form. As part of this process, checks were conducted to inform the reliability and validity of the coding scheme using similar methods outlined in the final reliability section. Twenty lessons (10 each from grades 2 and 3) were randomly selected for training purposes. The outcome for the training was to achieve .90 reliability. First, both coders practiced identifying instructional moves. As part of the training and practice process, the investigator continued to modify the codebook and coding form. When both were comfortable with this portion of the training, coding was practiced jointly on five to six lessons, followed with four separately coded lessons. After independently coding five additional lessons, the two coders reached an average reliability measure of .918 (.875; .784; 1.00; .933; 1.00). Thirty-seven lessons were then given to the doctoral student to code independently for reliability purposes.

Coding

A coding form was completed and attached to each of the 366 lessons (see Appendix E.) First, the top portion of the form was completed to provide identifying information that included

the name of the publisher, the grade level, the theme/unit/volume, lesson/week, day, page, and the sample number (all samples were numbered 1 through 366). The coding form also included 8 numbered rows; each row representing one instructional move. Additional rows were added at the bottom for lessons with more than 8 moves. Most instructional moves were coded by placing a check mark in the column in which the characteristic that matched the heading label was present. In the case of specific instructional methods or repeated reading columns, the predetermined abbreviation code or number of repetitions were recorded under the corresponding column heading.

The first column of the form indicated specific fluency methods stated in the lesson. All instructional moves that incorporated elements of that method were coded as using that method. For example, if the lesson was labeled readers' theatre, each instructional move related to readers' theatre, such as the move suggesting echo reading of the text, the move for practicing the script with a partner, and the move for performing the readers' theatre, were each coded as readers' theatre (RT).

Each instructional move was then coded for focus. Originally, the focus categories were identified as rate, accuracy, expression, reading words in isolation, and other. Early into the coding process, it became apparent most moves coded as "other" consisted of elements of comprehension; therefore, the "other" category was omitted and the category of "comprehension" was added. The "reading words in isolation" category was also omitted when it was discovered that programs were indicating that practicing word lists were for the purpose of building automaticity. Therefore, based on Samuels' (2006) definition of automaticity, the practicing of word lists word were coded as both rate and accuracy.

Each move was coded for delivery of instruction. The "skill mentioned" category was checked only if a skill was introduced and no other elements of explicit instruction were provided for that day's lesson. However, if the skill was named and then followed with other elements of

explicit instruction such as a definition, it was coded as declarative knowledge. If students were told the steps of completing a skill, it was coded as procedural; however, if modeling was suggested or a think-aloud was provided, the move was coded as both procedural knowledge and modeling or think-aloud. A move in which the teacher was instructed do a think-aloud but did not provide a script or framework for doing the think-aloud was coded as modeling with no language. The other categories were coded as described earlier.

Each move was also coded for reading mode. The coding form was altered again early in the process. Originally, choral reading and echo reading were both classified as "unison reading with teacher," but were later separated into two categories. Also, many lessons recommended to teachers that students read with peers either in small groups or with a partner. A new column was added labeled partner reading, which indicated that students were reading orally with fellow students.

The last category coded was that of documenting the number of repetitions students read the same text. Each time a move within a lesson suggested that the students reread text, it was coded as a repetition, or if the teachers' edition specified the number of repetitions (e.g., have the students read the text three or four times), the specified number of repetitions was recorded. Terms such as "several" or "numerous" were coded as two repetitions.

Organization of Teachers' Editions

The teachers' editions of all five programs were organized in similar fashion. Each program, in each grade, divided the year into six units or themes. Three of the publishers included 5 weeks of instruction in each theme (total of 30 weeks), while two included 6 (total of 36) weeks of instruction. The sixth week in each of the latter two was a review week of previously taught content and material. Thus, all five CRPs provided 30 weeks of instruction with new content and text (see Table 2). Each week of each program was also divided into a 5-day cycle. Some

Table 2

Text Source for Fluency Instruction

		Text source				
Program	Grade	Day 1	Day 2	Day 3	Day 4	Day 5
Program A						
6 units, 36 weeks	2nd	RA / MS / DB[1]	MS / DB[1]	MS /DB[1]	MS	
Week 6	3rd	RA / MS / DB[1]	MS	RA MS	MS	
Program B						
6 units, 36 weeks	2nd	RA / DB[1]	MS	MS PS / DB[1]	MS	MS
30 weeks	3rd	RA	MS	MS PS	MS	MS
Program C						
6 units, 36 weeks	2nd	DB[1]	MS	MS / DB[2]	PS / DB[3]	
Week 6—review	3rd	DB[1]	MS	MS / DB[2]	PS / DB[3]	
Program D						
6 units	2nd	MS / DB[1]	MS / DB[1]	MS / DB[2]	PS / DB[2]	MS / PS
30 weeks	3rd	MS	MS	MS	PS	MS / PS
Program E						
6 units	2nd	DB[1]	MS	RA / MS	PS	MS
30 weeks	3rd	RA	MS	MS	PS	MS

Note. RA = Read Aloud; MS = Main Selection; DB = Decodable Book; PS = Paired Selection.

[1,2,3] Indicates multiple titles for the decodable books.

programs referred to this cycle as "weeks" and others referred to them as "lessons." For clarification purposes, the 5-day cycles were called "weeks" and the daily plan of instruction were called "lessons."

Patterns of Instruction

As lessons were located and coded, patterns of fluency instruction within each week of the five CRPs emerged. The focus, content, and texts varied from varied from week to week; however, the format of instruction was fairly constant and predictable from week to week. The following is a brief description of instructional patterns identified in each of the programs.

Program A

In second grade of Program A, each day consists of a phonics and fluency lesson during which time the teacher is instructed to guide the students through reading several rows of isolated words and sentences. On Days 1 and 3, the teacher and students read a decodable book that begins with multiple readings of high-frequency words contained in the text, followed with the reading of the book title and browsing of the text. The students then read the text silently, followed with multiple oral readings and discussion of the text. On Days 2, 3, and 4, four teachers are instructed to provide explicit fluency instruction that consists of explaining, modeling, and providing guided practice (choral, echo, and partner reading) using the main selection. On Day 5, the students practice reading the main selection in small group with partners.

Third-grade fluency instruction is similar to that in grade 2. Guided practice of reading word lists and sentences occur on three days of the week (Days 1, 2, and 5). On Days 2 through 5, brief fluency lessons use the main selection and include explanation, modeling, and guided practice (choral, echo, and partner reading) with feedback.

Program B

The patterns of fluency instruction in Program B are almost identical for both second and third grades. On Day 1 of grade 2, the TEs suggest that teachers provide a brief explanation of an attribute of fluency during a read aloud. A brief explanation of reading fluency is also suggested while reading the main selection. On Day 2, the teacher is instructed to provide an explanation, a model of fluent reading, and guided practice (choral, echo, and partner reading). On Days 3 and 4, the TEs suggest that teachers explain, model with a think aloud, and provide guided and independent practice which includes echo and partner reading. On Day 5, as well as on all the days of the fifth and final week of each unit, teachers are recommended to incorporate readers' theatre. Program B is the only program to included readers' theatre as part of the fluency

curriculum. On the fifth week, the main selection is a readers' theatre script. During this week (Days 1 through 4), the teacher is to provide explanations, modeling, guided practice with feedback, and independent practice. The students perform the play on Day 5.

Program C

Fluency instruction in Program C in grades 2 and 3 are similar. On Day 1 of both days, the TEs suggest that students read a decodable book three or four times while the teacher monitors students' reading and provide feedback. In addition to this instruction on Day 1 in Grade 3, the manual suggests that the teacher provide an explanation, model and provides feedback as students read portions of the main selection three or four times. On Day 2, the TEs for both grades suggest that the student reread portions of the main selection three or four times with a partner as the teacher monitors students' reading performance and provide feedback. Day 3 is the same for both grades. This includes suggestions that the teacher model fluent reading with a read aloud, followed with guided practice (choral, echo, and partner reading), and monitoring with feedback. The students then reread the passages with a partner. On Day 4 in grade 2, the TE suggests that students reread the decodable book three or four times. Both grades on Days 4 and 5 recommend that the teacher model fluent reading followed with guided practice. Student reread portions of the main selection three or four times with a partner as the teacher monitors the reading and provides feedback.

Program D

Almost all fluency instruction for both grades 2 and 3 outlined in Program D occurs on Days 1 and 3. On Day 1, the teacher uses a read aloud to explain, model, and provide guided practice for fluency instruction and practice. On Day 3, the teacher uses text on a transparency to explain, model (sometimes with a think aloud), and provide guided practice. The lessons conclude with students reading with a partner. In addition to this instruction in grade 2, the

teacher is to provide fluency instruction using a decodable book. The instruction for these books on Days 1 and 3 include modeling (sometimes with a think aloud), and guided practice (echo, choral, or partner). The students reread the decodable books with a partner on Days 2 and 4. Virtually no fluency instruction or practice was suggested on Day 5 for either grade.

Program E

On Day 1 of grade 2 of Program E, the TE suggested that the teacher help students build fluency by reading isolated words found in the decodable book. On Days 2 through 4, students read word lists and sentences within the phonics and spelling lessons. On Days 2 and 3, the teacher is directed to explain, model (sometimes including a think aloud) and provided guided practice (choral, echo, small groups/partner, and tape assisted reading). Program E is the only program to include tape assisted reading as part of general instruction. The instructional and practice texts come from the main selection on Day 2 and from a transparency on Day 3. Virtually no fluency instruction or practice was suggested on Day 5.

Fluency instruction in grade 3 is similar to that in grade 2. The TE suggests that the teacher model fluent reading during a read aloud on Day 1. As in grade 2 on Days 2 and 3, the teacher is directed to explain, model (sometimes including a think aloud) and provide guided practice (small groups/partners, choral reading and audio assistance). The instructional and practice texts come from the main selection on Day 2 and from a transparency on Day 3. Virtually no fluency instruction or practice was suggested on Days 4 or 5 in third grade.

Text Source

The purpose of this study was not to include an analysis of the text used in core programs; however, a pattern of text used for instruction was noted. All five programs provided a student anthology of stories and selections from which students were taught and allowed to practice fluent reading. These anthology selections were labeled “main selection.” The number of

days suggested in the teachers' editions that teachers refer to the main selections ranged from 2 days (Program C) to 4 days (Programs A, B, and D). Three programs (Programs C, D, and E) also included in the student anthology each week, a "paired selection," which was another text that was concept or theme related and often of varying text type (e.g., expository or narrative). All of the programs included sets of decodable books that provided practice in fluency and phonics application at the second grade level. Two programs (Programs A and C) incorporated decodable books for use in fluency practice and instruction in grade 3; however, Program A discontinues the use of decodable books in the second half of the year. Two programs, Programs C and E, also included additional text for the teachers to be used specifically for reading aloud to the students with a focus on fluency. The other three programs directed teachers to read aloud text that was included in the student anthology. The superscript listed with some decodables (e.g., DB^{1}, $DB^{3)}$, indicates multiple titles. These patterns of text organization were crucial in determining repeated reading of texts during a week of lessons. For example, if the pattern of a particular program reread the anthology selection on Day 3 of each week, then any reference of reading the anthology on Day 3, the text repetitions for that lesson was coded as being read for two days.

Final Reliability

In that the investigator conducted all coding, interrater reliability standards stress the importance to demonstrate that the obtained ratings are not the "idiosyncratic results of one rater's subjective judgment" (Tinsley & Weiss, 1975, p. 359). Thus, a second coder was required (Neuendorf, 2002). Dewitz and colleagues (2009) performed reliability checks on 10% of the lessons with agreement between pairs of coders remaining above 80% with significant kappa coefficients. McGill and colleagues (2006) conducted reliability checks on of 20% of the pages with kappa coefficients demonstrating respectable levels of agreement. For this study, reliability checks were performed by one other coder on 10% (37) of the lessons.

Simple agreement is one of the most popular coefficients and is particularly appropriate for measures that are categorical, wherein each pair of coded measures is either a hit or a miss; however, according to Neuendorf (2002), simple agreement has important drawbacks, such as the "failure to account for chance agreement and the rigid requirement of the precise matching of coders' scores" (p. 149). For this reason, and the fact that a number of sources report it as the "the most widely used reliability coefficient," Cohen's Kappa was the measure of reliability used for this study (Neuendorf, 2002, p.150). The formula for this method is as follows: Kappa = PA_O - PA_E / 1 - PA_E where PA_O stands for "proportion agreement, observed," and PA_E stands for "proportion agreement, expected by chance." $PA_E = (1/n^2)$ ($\Sigma\ pm_i$) where n = number of units coded in common by coders and pm_i = each product of marginal's. This statistic ranges from .00 (no agreement) to 1.00 (perfect agreement), and a value of less than .00 indicates agreement less than chance (Neuendorf, 2002). Neuendorf also pointed out that the practice of averaging reliability coefficients across variables is inappropriate. Therefore, reliability coefficients were reported separately for each variable.

Krippendorff (1980) proposed that the guidelines of reporting on variables only if their reliability is above .80 with only "highly tentative and cautious conclusions" made about variables with reliabilities between .67 and .80 (p. 147). Two sets of 37 lessons were photocopied; one given to the investigator and the other to the second coder for independent coding. The lessons were coded, which yielded a total of 105 instructional moves, or 2,625 paired cells. By using Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS), data were entered and a Cohen's Kappa reliability of .839 was calculated, exceeding Krippendorff's standard of .80. Table 3 shows the crosstabulation of the investigator and second coder.

Tabulation and Reporting

Four databases were created for tabulating frequencies and calculating percentages using

Table 3

Crosstabulation of Reliability Sample by Investigator and Second Coder

	Second coder		
Variable	Specified instruction NOT recommended in TE	Specified instruction recommended in TE	Total
Investigator			
Specified instruction NOT recommended in TE	1,755	59	1,814
Specified instruction recommended in TE	43	333	376
Total	1,798	392	2,190

Note. Final reliability = 0.839.

Excel and SPSS. After all lessons were coded, the data were transferred into an Excel spreadsheet labeled "instructional moves" and checked for accuracy. The total number of instructional moves (and rows of data in the spreadsheet) equaled 1,100. This spreadsheet was useful in determining the density and sequence of moves within lessons.

Another important aspect of data analysis was to analyze multiple categories of instruction within lessons. Therefore, a second Excel spreadsheet was created and labeled "lessons." Rather than multiple rows of the spreadsheet assigned to a lesson as in the previously described spreadsheet, each lesson was assigned a row to which the instructional move data was transferred. This spreadsheet contained 366 rows, one for each lesson to one row of the spreadsheet that combined multiple categories within that lesson. These same two databases were then transferred into SPSS to create pivot tables for data analysis. The use of both spreadsheet programs allowed the investigator to crosscheck for accuracy of information. This organized information was used for several purposes. Foremost, it provided organized data used to create essential tables and figures to summarize possible answers that addressed the two questions of the study. Second, the data were analyzed for patterns. These patterns occurred amongst the reading

programs themselves and amongst the different categories, thus making it possible to describe relational patterns between variables, which are described in the following chapter.

CHAPTER IV

REPORT OF THE FINDINGS

With the recent resurgence of interest in fluency, spurred by the *National Reading Panel* and the *No Child Left Behind Act of 2001* (2002), fluency has assumed a prominent place in the literacy process. A recent survey reported that almost three quarters (73%) of schools in the US follow a CRP (Dewitz et al., 2009). Although considered an integral component of the reading curriculum, one cannot assume that fluency instruction is included in CRPs. The purpose of this study was to examine the suggested fluency instruction in the teachers' editions of the five top-selling CRPs, focusing on grades 2 and 3. Three hundred sixty-six randomly selected fluency lessons from the five programs were coded and analyzed using standard content analysis procedures (Krippendorff, 1980, 2004). The purpose of this chapter is to present results in order to answer two questions.

1. How are fluency skills taught? This may include:
    a. Recommendations as to how the teacher is to instruct and encourage students to practice these skills.
    b. Recommendations for tasks to assist students in learning about and practicing these skills.
    c. Patterns of instruction and practice such as consistency, frequency, and duration.
2. How do reading fluency instructional practices in core programs compare to evidence-based reading fluency instructional practices defined in current research?

The format for presentation of the findings will consist of three parts. Part 1 will report the frequencies and percentages of instructional moves in the areas of (a) content focus, (b) instructional delivery, and (c) reading mode. These will be broken out and reported by program and grade. An explanation of how these findings align with evidence-based instructional practices

will be included also. Part 2 will report frequencies and percentages of lessons rather than by each move within the lessons. All instructional moves within each lesson were combined into a single lesson unit for reporting. Part 2 will include: (a) combinations of instructional foci within lessons (e.g., lessons that focused on both rate and accuracy), (b) combinations of instructional delivery components within lessons (e.g., lessons that included both modeling and guided practice), (c) combinations of reading modes within lessons (e.g., teachers were directed to do both choral reading and partner reading), (d) combinations of instructional delivery components and repeated reading of text within lessons, and (e) text encounters. An explanation of how these findings align with evidence-based instructional practices will also be included. Part 3 will report on specific methods of evidence-based fluency instruction named in the CRPs.

Part 1: Reporting of Frequencies and Percentages of Instructional Moves

Focus of Instruction

Based on Pikulski and Chard's definition that "reading fluency is…manifested in accurate, rapid, expressive oral reading and is applied during, and makes possible, silent reading comprehension," the focus for each instructional move was coded for rate, accuracy, expression, and/or comprehension (Pikulski & Chard, 2005). A move is defined as a lesson segment that is bound by a shift or "change in the type of instruction or topic of instruction" within an identified reading lesson for parsing the language of the teacher's manuals (McGill-Franzen et al., 2006, p. 73). A detailed profile of the frequencies and percentages of the four fluency instructional focus areas by program and grade are displayed in Table 4. As mentioned earlier, a 1,100 instructional moves were coded; yet, a total of 1,413 occurrences are cited on the table. This is due to the fact that, even at this level of coding, 291 moves involved more than one focus.

The percentages of the four reading fluency instructional foci are shown in Figure 1. Expression evidenced the highest percentage of fluency instructional focus in these five CRPs

Table 4

Total Frequencies and Percentages of Instructional Focus for Reading Fluency

	Program A		Program B		Program C		Program D		Program E		Total	
Variable	*f*	%	*f*	%	*f*	%	*f*	%	*f*	%	*f*	%
Rate												
Total	55	26	65	20	188	39	47	22	38	22	393	28
2nd	31	14	38	12	109	22	29	14	38	22	245	17
3rd	24	11	27	8	79	16	18	8	0	0	148	10
Accuracy												
Total	59	28	67	20	184	38	49	23	49	29	408	29
2nd	31	14	36	11	119	24	31	15	38	22	255	18
3rd	28	13	31	9	65	13	18	8	11	6	153	11
Expression												
Total	71	33	190	58	107	22	108	51	80	47	556	39
2nd	35	16	77	23	68	14	82	39	43	25	305	22
3rd	36	17	113	34	39	8	26	12	37	22	251	18
Comprehension												
Total	29	14	6	2	9	2	8	4	4	2	56	4
2nd	15	7	4	1	0	0	7	3	4	2	30	2
3rd	14	7	2	1	9	2	1	0	0	0	26	2
Total												
Total	214	100	328	100	488	100	212	100	171	100	1413	100
2nd	112	52	155	47	296	61	149	70	123	72	835	59
3rd	102	48	173	53	192	39	63	30	48	28	578	41

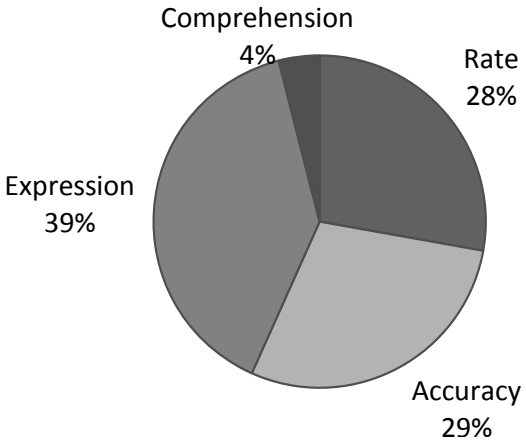

Figure 1. Total percentage of instructional focus in five CRP's teachers' editions.

teachers' editions. Accuracy and rate ranked second with nearly equal percentage points. Four percent (56) of the instructional moves were coded as comprehension.

Instructional focus by programs and grade. Rate, accuracy, and expression were recommended 96% of the time as areas of reading fluency instructional focus as shown in Figure 2. More than half of Programs B and D's codings and almost half of Program E's codings at the program level included instruction focused on expression. Program C recorded the highest percentages in the areas of rate and accuracy. Comprehension codings in Program A were more than triple than the same category codings in the other programs.

According to the percentage of instructional focus by grade in Figure 3, the percentage of codings for rate and accuracy were similar at each grade level, with more occurrences in second

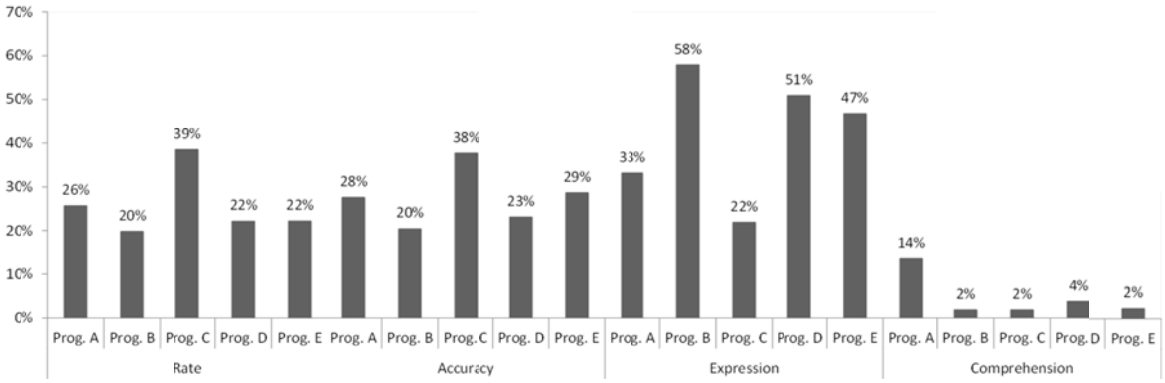

Figure 2. Total percentages of instructional focus of five reading program's teachers' editions.

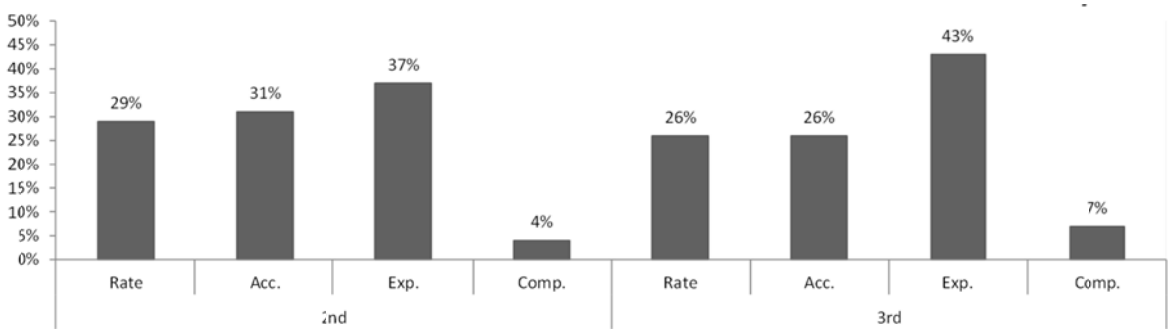

Figure 3. Total percentages of instructional focus of reading fluency instruction in grades 2 and 3 of five reading program's teachers' editions.

grade. Expression, again, occurred more often that the other focus categories. Over forty percent of the third grade codings included elements of expression. Though relatively low compared to rate, accuracy, and expression, the percentage of lessons with components of comprehension in grade three were more than triple those in second grade.

Comparison to evidence-based reading fluency practices. The NRP (NIHCD, 2000) identified three attributes of reading fluency, which include rate, accuracy, and expression. Pikulski and Chard (2005) extended these attributes into a definition that also included comprehension. All instructional moves focused on at least one of these characteristics and these characteristics only. Therefore, one can assume that that the focus of instruction outlined in the CRPs is very much aligned with research on fluency instruction. The fact that more lessons were coded for expression is most interesting; however, the research does not indicate whether or not one attribute requires more attention or emphasis than the others.

Instructional Delivery

An important aspect of this study was to describe how CRPs suggest teachers provide instruction, either by providing what the teacher is to say and do, or what to have the students do. Durkin's 1981 study reported that both basal programs and teachers gave "considerable time (or space) to assessment and practice or 'mentioning,' but very little to direct instruction" (p. 528). Each instructional move was coded to determine the level of direct or explicit instruction provided by the five programs using 11 subcategories. The first category, skill mentioning, was used to describe moves within a lesson that merely mentioned the skill with no other elements of explicitness provided. Three categories used were based on Paris, Lipson, and Wixson's (1983) three levels of knowledge of skill explanation: declarative (what), procedural (how), and conditional (why and when). Two codings of modeling were broken down into (a) those moves in which the CRP provided language for a think aloud, and (b) those that just suggested that the

teacher model the skill. Pearson and Gallagher's (1983) gradual release of responsibility model suggests guided practice of the skill after teacher modeling. Four categories coded the moves for level of guidance and feedback. These included the categories in which the teacher was given the language for providing guidance, and another one which recommended guidance but did not provide language. Two additional categories coded for performance feedback. One in which the teacher provided feedback and the other in which a peer provided the feedback. The last category was that of coding for students performing the skill independently, either orally or silently.

All 1,100 moves were coded for instructional delivery of which 18% (199) reported no elements of explicit instruction. Thirty-eight percent (422) reported codings from multiple areas. As a result, 1,426 occurrences were reported. Figure 4 displays percentages of those instructional moves which included elements of explicit instruction. More than a fourth of the instructional moves were coded as guided practice which included moves that provided teacher language and those that did not. A fifth of the moves included modeling of some type including those which provided a script for a think-aloud. Of the three types of knowledge, the percentage of procedural knowledge was slightly more than declarative knowledge and the percentage of each of these tripled those of conditional knowledge. Independent practice occurred rarely. No moves in which a new skill was introduced without providing additional further instruction were coded.

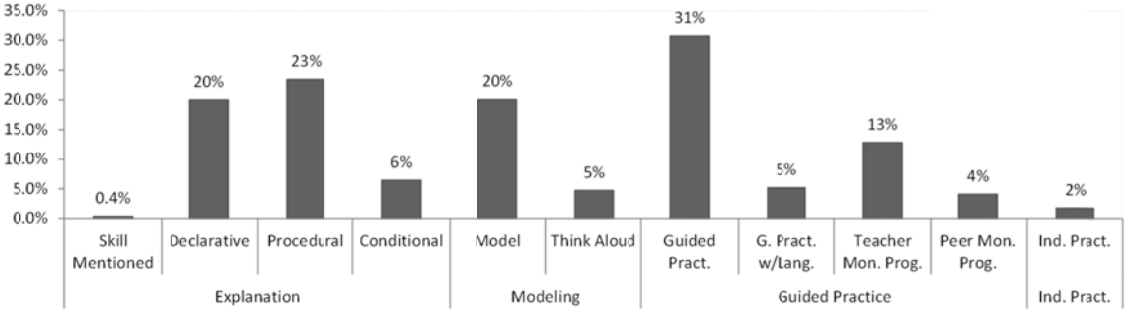

Figure 4. Total percentage of instructional delivery in five CRP's teachers' editions.

Instructional delivery by program and grade level. These data for instructional delivery categories are also reported according to program as seen in Figure 5. Of the three types of knowledge, procedural knowledge ranked the highest in Programs D and E. Declarative knowledge had the highest percentage in Program B, second in A, and third in Programs D and E. Reflective of the overall total percentages, guided practice ranked either first or second across all the programs. More than one fifth of the codings in Programs C, D, and E included teacher modeling. Teacher monitoring of student progress occurred relatively few times except in Program C which reported almost 25% in this area. At the other end of the rankings in the varying programs, were several categories with no codings. These included independent practice (Program C), skill mentioning (Programs A, B, C, and D), think aloud (Programs A and D), guided practice with no teacher language (Program C), and peer monitoring (Programs A and C).

Instructional delivery percentages presented according to grade level are presented in Figure 6. Guided practice ranked the highest of all the categories but was more prevalent in grade 2. Modeling occurred in approximately 15% of the moves at both grade levels. Teacher and peer monitoring of student progress were equal as well in both grades and accounted for 10% and 3% respectively. Of the three types of knowledge, procedural knowledge ranked higher than the others in second grade, but was equal to declarative knowledge in grade 3. All other categories accounted for less than 4% each of the total in both grades. A more detailed breakdown of instructional delivery frequencies and percentages is displayed in Table 5.

Comparison to evidence-based reading fluency practices. Pearson and Gallagher's (1983) model of gradual release of responsibility describes four areas of explicit instruction: (a) explanation of skill, including declarative, procedural, and conditional knowledge; (b) teacher modeling, with or without a script for a think aloud; (c) guided practice with feedback; and (d) independent practice. Multiple components of this level of "explicitness" of instruction are represented in several procedures identified by the NRP (NIHCD, 2000) such as FORI (Stahl et

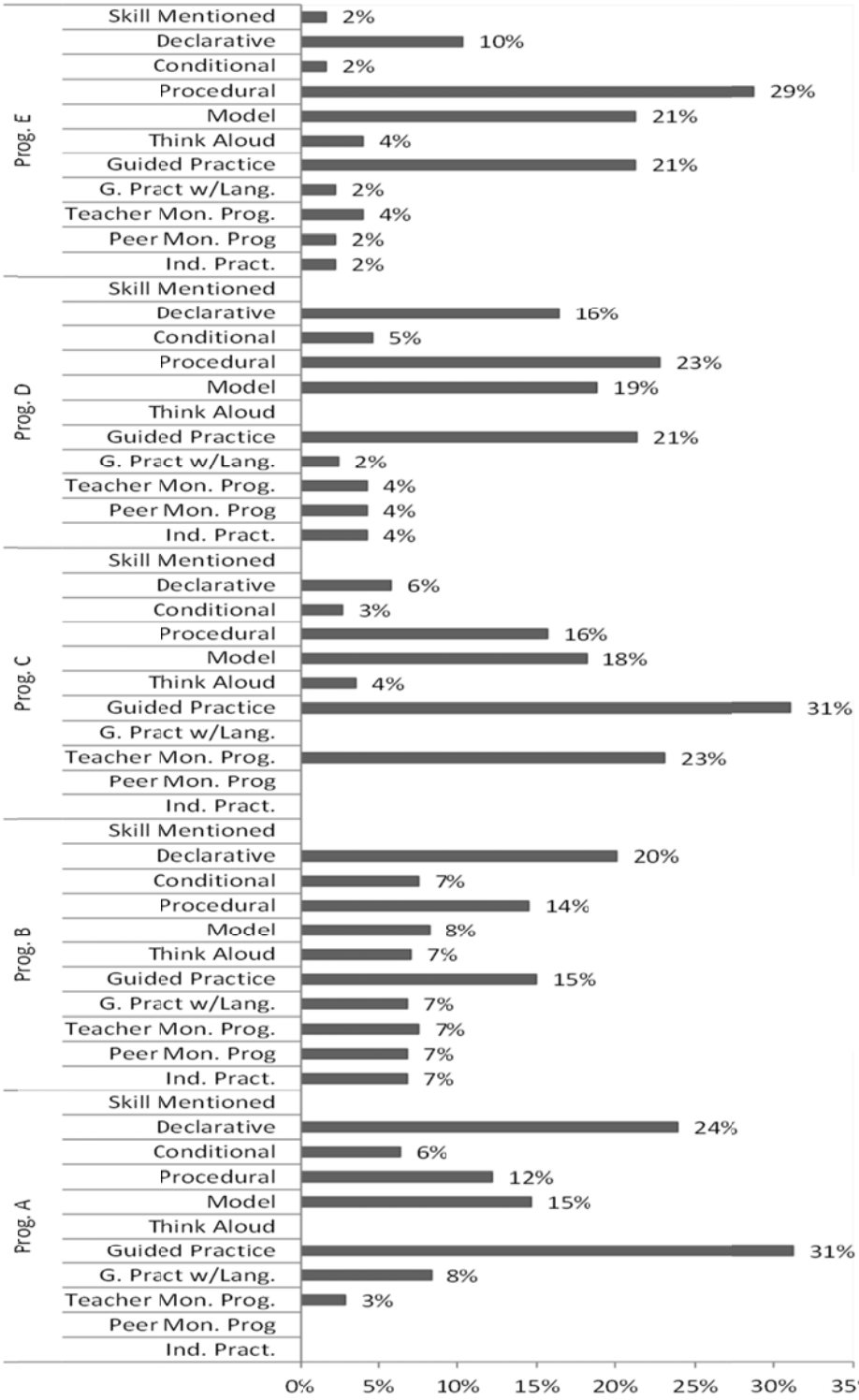

Figure 5. Total percentages of instructional delivery of five reading program's teachers' editions disaggregated by program.

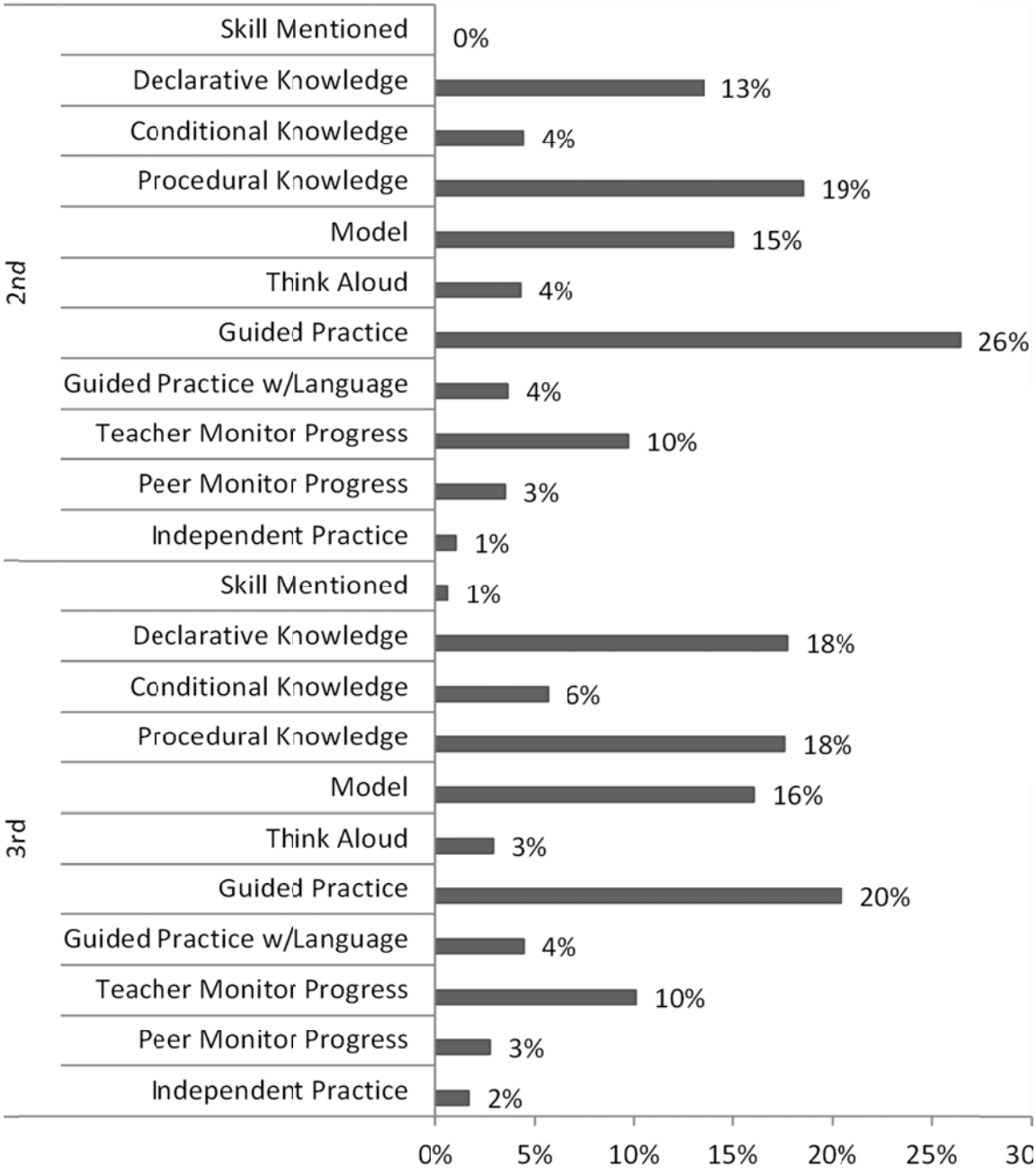

Figure 6. Total percentages of deliver of reading fluency instruction in grades 2 and 3 of five reading program's teachers' editions.

Table 5

Total Frequencies and Percentages of Delivery of Fluency Instruction

	Program A		Program B		Program C		Program D		Program E		Total	
Variable	*f*	%	*f*	%	*f*	%	*f*	%	*f*	%	*f*	%
Skill mentioned												
Total	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	3	2	4	.3
3rd	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	3	2	4	.3
Declarative knowledge												
Total	49	24	86	21	21	6	46	17	18	10	220	15.4
2nd	23	11	35	9	11	3	26	10	9	5	104	7.3
3rd	26	13	51	13	10	3	20	7	9	5	116	8.1
Conditional knowledge												
Total	13	6	32	8	10	3	13	5	3	2	71	5.0
2nd	4	2	12	3	6	2	10	4	2	1	34	2.4
3rd	9	4	20	5	4	1	1	3	1	1	37	2.6
Procedural knowledge												
Total	25	12	62	15	57	15	64	24	50	29	258	18.1
2nd	13	6	30	7	29	8	45	17	26	15	143	10.0
3rd	12	6	32	8	28	8	19	7	24	14	115	8.1
Model												
Total	30	15	35	9	66	18	53	20	37	21	221	15.5
2nd	13	6	17	4	30	8	40	15	16	9	116	8.1
3rd	17	8	18	4	36	10	13	5	21	12	105	7.4
Think aloud												
Total	1	0	30	7	13	4	1	0	7	4	52	3.6
2nd	1	0	16	4	10	3	0	0	6	3	33	2.3
3rd	0	0	14	3	3	1	1	0	1	1	19	1.3
Guided practice												
Total	64	31	64	16	113	30	60	22	37	21	338	23.7
2nd	33	16	24	6	85	23	37	14	25	14	204	14.3
3rd	31	15	40	10	28	8	23	9	12	7	134	9.4
Guided practice w/language												
Total	17	8	29	7	0	0	7	3	4	2	57	4.0
2nd	9	4	14	3	0	0	3	1	2	1	28	2.0
3rd	8	4	15	4	0	0	4	1	2	1	29	2.0
Teacher monitor progress												
Total	6	3	32	8	84	23	12	4	7	4	141	9.9
2nd	1	0	17	4	46	12	4	1	7	4	75	5.3
3rd	5	2	15	4	38	10	8	3	0	0	66	4.6
Peer monitor progress												
Total	0	0	29	7	0	0	12	4	4	2	45	3.2
2nd	0	0	11	3	0	0	12	4	4	2	27	1.9
3rd	0	0	18	4	0	0	0	0	0	0	18	1.3
Independent practice												
Total	0	0	9	2	7	2	0	0	3	2	19	1.3
2nd	0	0	7	2	0	0	0	0	1	1	8	.6
3rd	0	0	2	0	7	2	0	0	2	1	11	.8
Total												
Total	205	100	408	100	371	100	269	100	173	100	1426	100.0
2nd	97	47	183	45	217	58	177	66	98	57	772	54.1
3rd	108	53	225	55	154	42	92	34	75	43	654	45.9

al., 1997), FDL (Rasinski et al., 1994), ORL (Hoffman, 1987; Reutzel & Hollingsworth, 1993) and NIM (Flood et al., 2005). All of the CRPs included lessons that incorporated elements of explanation, modeling, and guided practice with at least one lesson per week that included all three components. The findings indicate that the CRPs suggest that teachers spend the majority of time and efforts on guided practice where the students worked with the teacher or peers and less on independent practice. In that the NRP did not find sufficient evidence to warrant the use of independent reading, this lack of attention to independent reading indicates further alignment to research.

Reading Mode

The previous section discussed varied levels of instructional support suggested by the five different programs. This section describes the mode of reading that reflects these same levels of support: (a) teacher models fluent reading by reading aloud to students. Students are either just listening to the teacher reading or listening and following the text while reading silently. (b) Student orally reads the text together with a teacher or peer and receives guidance and feedback. Reading mode categories classified as guidance include choral reading, echo reading, and partner reading. (c) Student read independently either orally or silently (Hiebert, 2005).

Of the 1,100 instructional moves coded for this study, 628 (57%) reported some mode of reading, either by the teacher reading aloud as students listened, students reading with a teacher or peer, or students reading on their own. Figure 7 presents the total percentages of the different reading modes. The categories with the highest percentages were students reading with partners, and listening listen while reading to text. Independent oral reading and choral reading ranked with near similar percentages were recommended approximately 10% of the time. Listening to text being read by the teacher and echo reading were rarely coded. Silent reading was virtually undocumented.

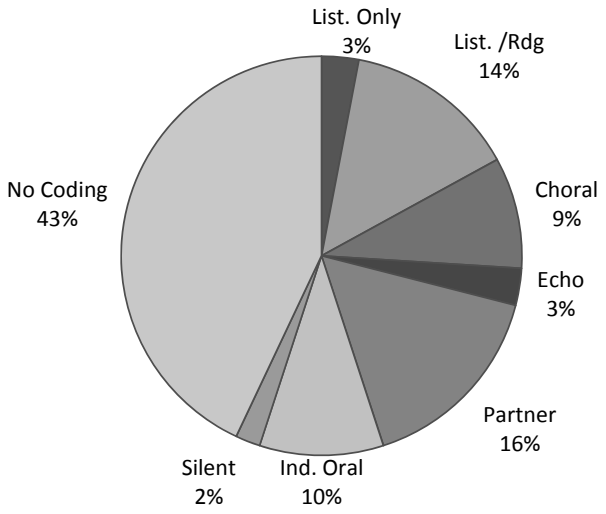

Figure 7. Total percentage of reading mode in five CRP's teachers' editions.

Reading mode by program and grade. The percentages of the different modes of reading disaggregated by programs are displayed in Figure 8. At 9%, Program E reported twice the percentage of the other four programs in listening only. Program D reported almost twice the percentages than most other programs in the areas of listening while reading and echo reading. The range of percentages of choral reading and independent oral reading across all programs was within four percent of each other, except for Program B in choral reading. Program B ranked the highest in partner reading. Program A is the only program with more than one percent of the moves coded as students reading silently. Figure 9 depicts the same data organized within programs.

The differences in reading mode percentages between grades varied minimally, with second grade reporting higher in 4 of the categories (see Figure 10). In fact, with the exception of the 3% difference in choral reading, all other categories were within 2% of each other. Table 6 provides a detailed breakdown of frequencies and percentages in this area.

Comparison to evidence-based reading fluency practices. In the previous section elements of explicit instruction, including teacher, were discussed. The importance of the teacher

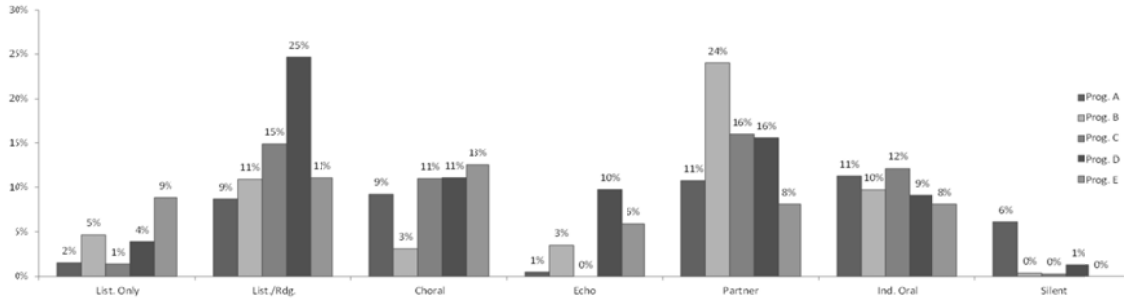

Figure 8. Total percentages of reading mode of five reading program's teachers' editions disaggregated by program.

reading aloud to students while modeling appropriate rate, accuracy, and expression cannot be underestimated and is evident in the suggestions offered by the CRPs. Partner reading had the highest percentage of instructional move codings in the area of reading mode. This seems to coincide with the greater amount of research to justify its use in classrooms. Several methods and practices, including FORI, GRORF, and other research studies indicate positive results with students reading with a peer (Eldredge, 1990; Eldredge & Quinn, 1988; Koskinen & Blum, 1986; Kuhn et al., 2006; Morgan & Lyon, 1979; Stahl et al., 1997). Though somewhat less than that of partner reading, the research supports the use of other listening while reading modes which were identified in the programs, namely echo and choral reading (Eldredge, Reutzel, & Hollingsworth, 1996; Vadasy, Sanders, & Peyton, 2005). This also includes the early works of Chomsky (1978), who developed tape-assisted reading, and Heckelman (1969), who studied the effects of the NIM. The number of moves that were coded for independent and silent reading were somewhat limited. This aligns with the limited and inconclusive findings of the NRP (NICHD, 2000) on independent reading.

Part 2: Reporting of Frequencies and Percentages of Lessons

The frequencies and percentages of instructional focus, instructional delivery, and

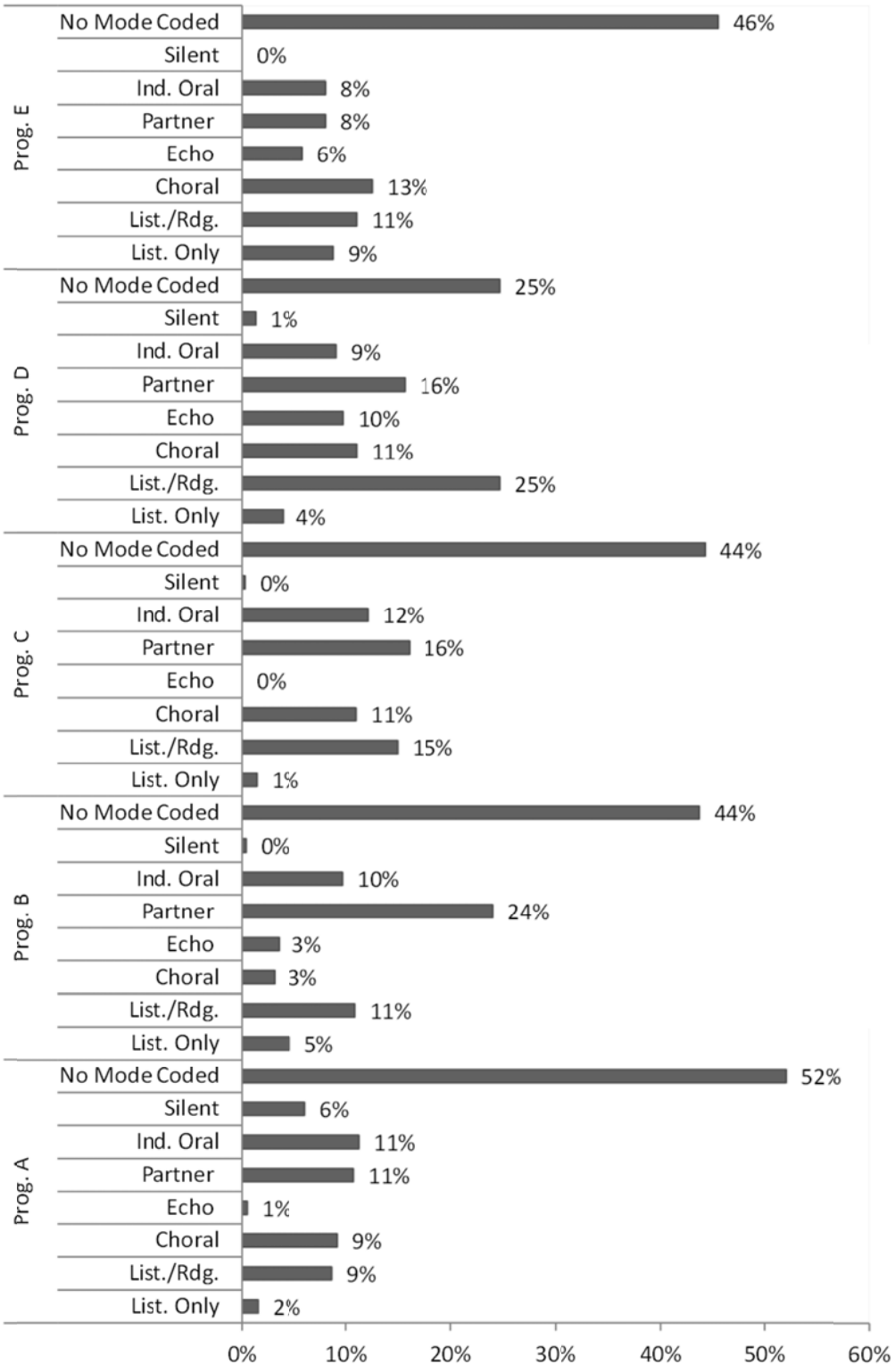

Figure 9. Total percentages of instructional focus of five reading program's teachers' editions disaggregated by program.

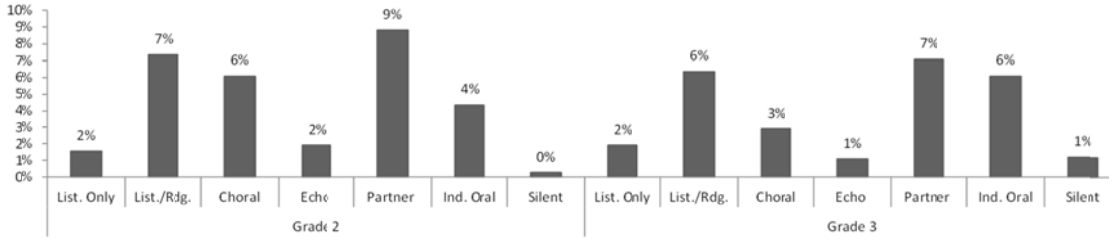

Figure 10. Total percentages of reading mode of reading fluency instruction in grades 2 and 3 of five reading program's teachers' editions.

reading mode were reported in the previous section using instructional moves as the unit of analysis. Another aspect to consider is how these elements are instructed in combination with each other during a daily lesson. For example, a lesson that directed a teacher to teach the use of punctuation to aid with expressive reading might include multiple instructional moves. These could include the teacher providing an explanation of the skill, a think-aloud in which the skill is modeled followed with guided practice using echo reading. In order to report this particular combination of explicit instruction elements, it necessitates combining the instructional moves of the same lesson and reporting the data at the lesson level. Therefore, the findings of Part 2 will be frequencies and percentages of lessons for the varying areas being discussed.

Part 2 will report the following data: (a) the combinations of content foci (e.g., lessons that focused on both rate and accuracy), (b) the combinations of instructional delivery (e.g., lessons that included both modeling and guided practice), (c) the combinations of reading mode (e.g., teachers were directed to do both choral reading and partner reading), (d) student encounters with text, and (e) specific mention of fluency methods.

Combinations of Instructional Foci Within Lessons

All 366 lessons were coded as rate (R), accuracy (A), expression, (E), comprehension (C) or any combination of the four. Thus, a lesson coded "R" meant that the focus for that day's

Table 6

Total Frequencies and Percentages of Reading Mode for Fluency Instruction

	Program A		Program B		Program C		Program D		Program E		Total	
Variable	*f*	%	*f*	%	*f*	%	*f*	%	*f*	%	*f*	%
Listening												
Total	3	2	12	5	5	1	6	4	12	9	38	3
2nd	2	1	6	2	0	0	6	4	3	2	17	2
3rd	1	1	6	2	5	1	0	0	9	7	21	2
Listening w/reading												
Total	17	9	28	11	53	15	38	25	15	11	151	14
2nd	8	4	8	3	36	10	25	16	4	3	81	7
3rd	9	5	20	8	17	5	13	8	11	8	70	6
Choral												
Total	18	9	8	3	39	11	17	11	17	13	99	9
2nd	13	7	4	2	29	8	9	6	12	9	67	6
3rd	5	3	4	2	10	3	8	5	5	4	32	3
Echo												
Total	1	1	9	3	0	0	15	10	8	6	33	3
2nd	0	0	3	1	0	0	11	7	7	5	21	2
3rd	1	1	6	2	0	0	4	3	1	1	12	1
Partner												
Total	21	11	62	24	57	16	24	16	11	8	175	16
2nd	12	6	25	10	36	10	18	12	6	4	97	9
3rd	9	5	37	14	21	6	6	4	5	4	78	7
Independent oral												
Total	22	11	25	10	43	12	14	9	11	8	115	10
2nd	17	9	16	6	6	2	4	3	5	4	48	4
3rd	5	3	9	3	37	10	10	6	6	4	67	6
Silent												
Total	12	6	1	0	1	0	2	1	0	0	16	1
2nd	0	0	1	0	1	0	1	1	0	0	3	0
3rd	12	6	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	13	1
No mode coded												
Total	102	52	113	44	158	44	38	25	62	46	473	43
2nd	53	27	59	23	97	27	26	17	51	38	286	26
3rd	49	25	54	21	61	17	12	8	11	8	187	17
Total												
Total	196	100	258	100	356	100	154	100	136	100	1100	100
2nd	205	54	122	47	205	58	100	65	88	65	620	56
3rd	91	46	136	53	151	42	54	35	48	35	480	44

lesson was on rate only. A coding of R/A/E meant that the lesson directed the teacher to focus not only on rate but on accuracy and expression as well at some point during that day's lesson.

The total percentages of instructional focus combinations are visually represented in Figure 11. Lessons that focused solely on expression reported the highest percentage of lesson codings. However, a fourth of the lessons focused on both rate and accuracy (R/A) which was greater than the number of lessons that focused only on accuracy or rate alone. Lessons that focused on rate, accuracy, and expression (R/A/E) accounted for a similar percentage to rate or accuracy only. Fourteen lessons (4%) focused on all four categories (R/A/E/C).

Instructional focus combinations by program and grades. The combination of instructional foci varied across programs and grades. Figure 12 graphically represents the percentages in each area by program. Figure 11 presents similar data organized to depict within program instructional foci. Program B reported that more than half the lessons focused exclusively on expression. Programs E and D ranked second in this same category with 40% and 35%, respectively. Rate and rate/accuracy made up 85% of Program E's total coding.
Many programs included lessons that combined three and four foci. One fourth of Program D's lesson included a combination of rate, accuracy, and expression. Four of the five programs (Programs A, B, D, and E) had lesson codings that included all four categories of rate, expression,

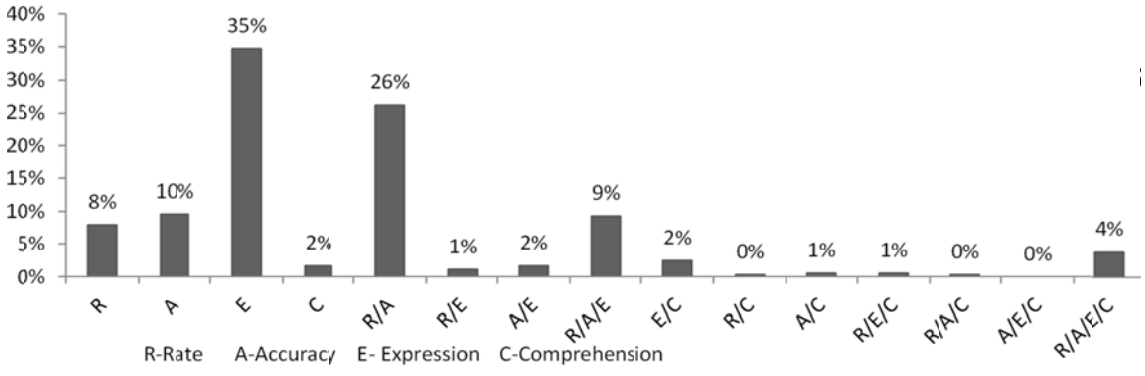

Figure 11. Total percentage of combined instructional focus in five CRP's teachers' editions.

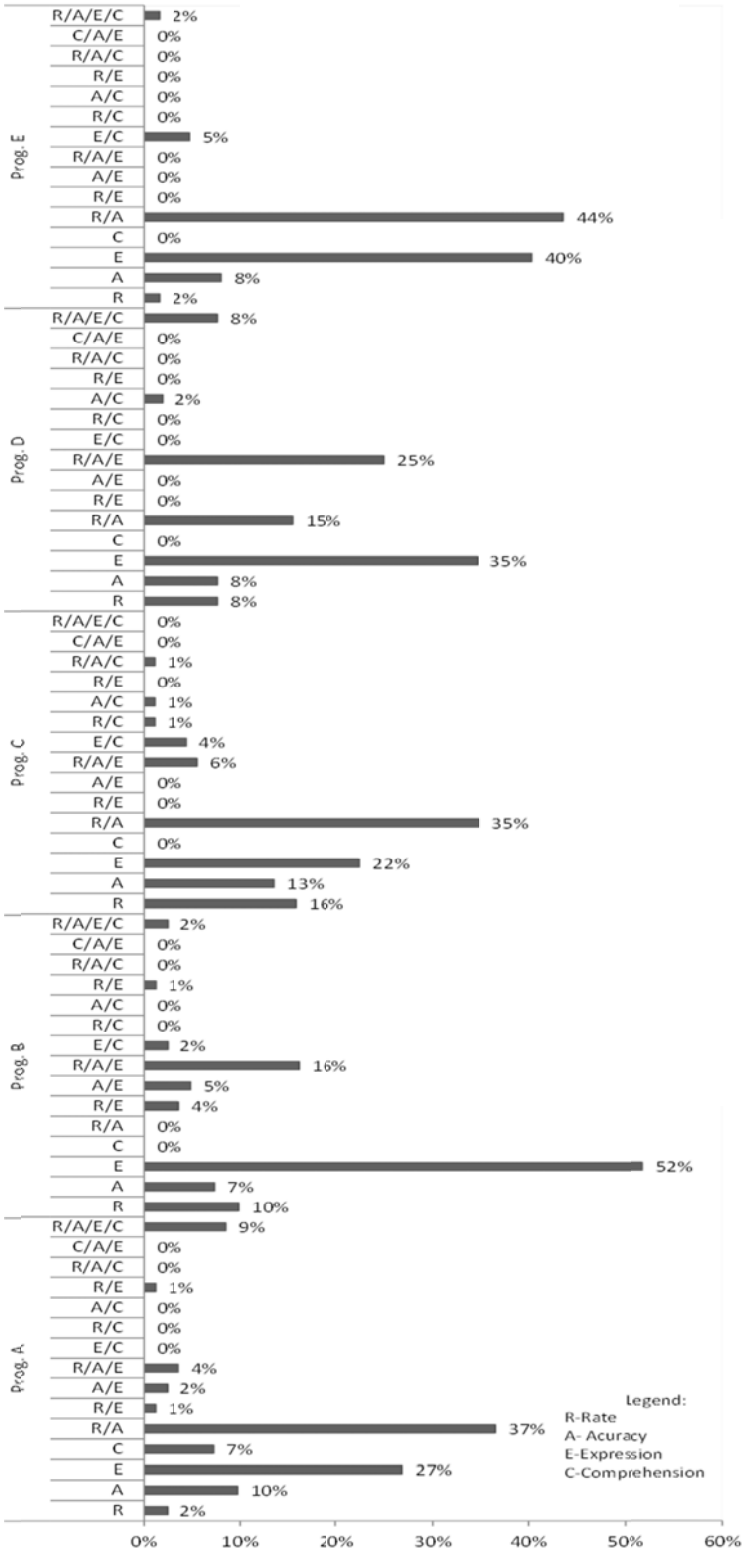

Figure 12. Total percentages of combined instructional focus of five reading program's teachers' editions disaggregated by program.

accuracy, and comprehension (R/A/E/C). Programs A and D reported greater percentages with this combination. No lessons were coded R/C, R/A/C, or A/E/C. Figure 13 indicates the percentage of foci combinations by grade level. Both rate and accuracy were similar in the two grades. In second grade, almost a third of lessons were coded as rate/accuracy and another third as expression. The other third of the lessons were divided among primarily rate and accuracy. In third grade, expression accounted for 39% of the lessons coded, twice the percentage of the next highest, rate/accuracy. The percentage of R/A/E in second grade was twice that in third grade. Table 7 provides a breakdown combined instructional foci for each program.

Comparison to evidence-based reading fluency practices. In Part 1 of this chapter, it was determined that the content focus of the lessons found in current CRPs were aligned with the definition and attributes of reading fluency (NIHCD, 2000; Pikulski & Chard, 2005). The purpose of this section was to report the varied combinations of fluency foci that were suggested in many of the lessons in the CRPs. One can assume that teaching students the attributes of fluency is important; however, any claim that an emphasis on any one focus or combinations of foci is more beneficial to students' fluency development would be unfounded in the research.

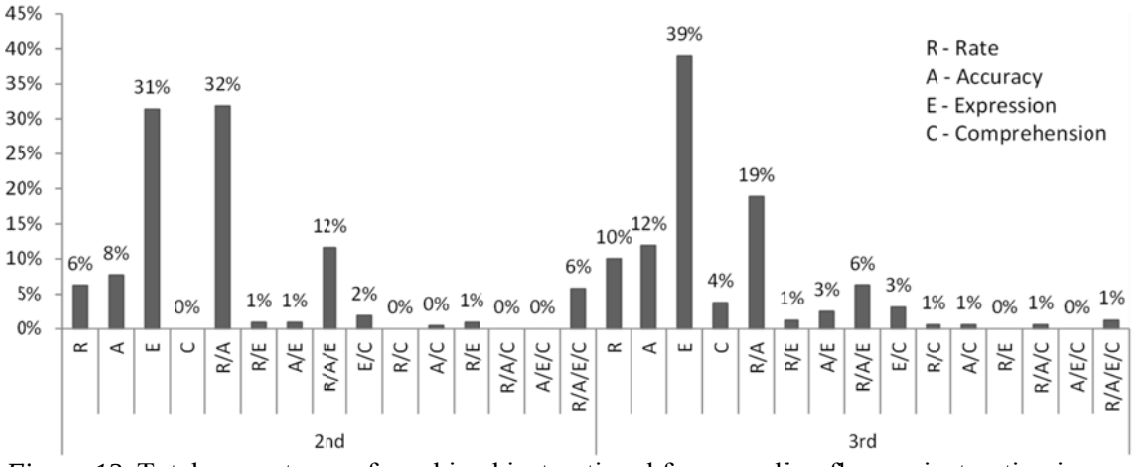

Figure 13. Total percentages of combined instructional focus reading fluency instruction in grades 2 and 3 of five reading program's teachers' editions.

Table 7

Total Frequencies and Percentages of Combined Instructional Focus for Reading Fluency

	Program A		Program B		Program C		Program D		Program E		Total	
Variable	*f*	%	*f*	%	*f*	%	*f*	%	*f*	%	*f*	%
Rate												
Total	2	2	8	10	14	16	4	8	1	2	29	7
2nd	1	1	5	6	4	4	2	4	1	2	13	4
3rd	1	1	3		10	11	2	4	0	0	16	4
Accuracy												
Total	8	10	6	7	12	13	4	8	5	8	35	10
2nd	3	4	4	5	6	7	1	2	2	3	16	4
3rd	5	6	2	2	6	7	3	6	3	5	19	5
Expression												
Total	22	27	42	52	20	22	18	35	25	40	127	35
2nd	13	16	20	25	12	13	11	21	9	15	65	18
3rd	9	11	22	27	8	9	7	13	16	26	62	17
Comprehension												
Total	6	7	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	6	2
2nd	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
3rd	6	7	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	6	2
Rate/accuracy												
Total	30	37	0	0	31	35	8	15	27	44	96	26
2nd	19	23	0	0	20	22	0	0	27	44	66	18
3rd	11	13	0	0	11	12	8	15	0	0	30	8
Rate/expression												
Total	1	1	3	4	0	0	0	0	0	0	4	1
2nd	0	0	2	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	1
3rd	1	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	4	1
Accuracy/expression												
Total	2	2	4	5	0	0	0	0	0	0	6	2
2nd	0	0	2	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	1
3rd	2	2	2	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	4	1
Rate/accuracy/expression												
Total	3	4	13	16	5	6	13	25	0	0	34	9
2nd	1	1	5	6	5	6	13	25	0	0	24	7
3rd	2	2	8	10	0	0	0	0	0	0	10	3
Expression/comprehension												
Total	0	0	2	2	4	4	0	0	3	5	9	2
2nd	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	3	5	4	1
3rd	0	0	1	1	4	4	0	0	0	0	5	1

(*table continues*)

	Program A		Program B		Program C		Program D		Program E		Total	
Variable	*f*	%	*f*	%	*f*	%	*f*	%	*f*	%	*f*	%
Rate/comprehension												
Total	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	1	0
2nd	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
3rd	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	1	0
Accuracy/comprehension												
Total	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	2	0	0	2	1
2nd	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	2	0	0	1	0
3rd	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	1	0
Rate/expression/comprehension												
Total	1	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	1
2nd	1	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	1
3rd	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Rate/accuracy/comprehension												
Total	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	1	0
2nd	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
3rd	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	1	0
Accuracy/expression/comprehension												
Total	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
2nd	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
3rd	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Rate/accuracy/expression/comprehension												
Total	7	9	2	2	0	0	4	8	1	2	14	4
2nd	6	7	1	1	0	0	4	8	1	2	12	3
3rd	1	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	1
Total												
Total	82	100	81	100	89	100	52	100	62	100	366	100
2nd	44	54	41	51	47	53	32	62	43	69	207	57
3rd	38	46	40	49	42	47	20	38	12	31	159	43

Combinations of Instructional Delivery Components Within Lessons

This section reports on the combinations of the various instructional delivery components that were coded within each lesson. For example, some lessons might direct the teacher to explain or describe a skill, tell students how to do a skill, model that skill, and then provide guided practice. The eleven coding categories were grouped into the following new categories: (1) Explanation. This group includes skill mentioning, declarative knowledge, conditional

knowledge, and procedural knowledge. (2) Model. This group included teacher modeling including think alouds. (3) Guided Practice. This group includes guided practice, guided practice w/language, teacher-monitored student progress, and peer-monitored progress. (4) Independent Practice includes independent oral reading and silent reading.

Using these four categories, 15 new combinations were created for analysis purposes. A display of the percentages of these instructional delivery combinations are displayed in Figure 14. Of the 366 lessons coded, 83% (305) included at least one or a combination of several elements of explicit instruction. Two thirds of all lessons coded consisted of 4 of the 11 combinations. The first third (36%) were those coded as explanation/model/guided practice (E/M/G), three times that of any other category. Another third was comprised of guided practice (G), explanation/guided practice (E/G) and explanation/model groups (E/M), each having similar percentages.

Both the explanation only and model only groups account for only 5% of the total. Four percent (13 lessons) reported combinations of all four categories. Table 8 provides a detailed breakdown of the frequencies of instructional delivery combinations within lessons.

Instructional delivery combinations by program and grade. According to Figure 15, which shows the percentages of instructional delivery combinations by program, the explanation/ model/guided practice (E/M/G) category ranked highest in all five programs. This accounts for

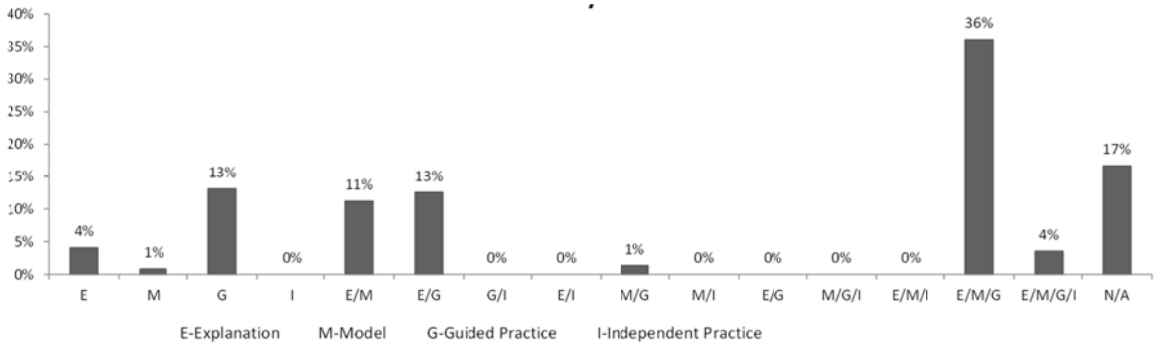

Figure 14. Total percentage of combined instructional delivery in five CRP's teachers' editions.
Table 8

Total Frequencies and Percentages of Combined Delivery of Reading Fluency Instruction

	Program A		Program B		Program C		Program D		Program E		Total	
Variable	*f*	%	*f*	%	*f*	%	*f*	%	*f*	%	*f*	%
Explanation of skill/strategy (E)												
Total	0	0	10	11	3	3	2	4	0	0	15	4
2nd	0	0	6	7	3	3	1	2	0	0	10	3
3rd	0	0	4	4	0	0	1	2	0	0	5	1
Modeling (M)												
Total	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	3	3	1
2nd	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0
3rd	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	3	2	1
Guided practice (G)												
Total	8	10	0	0	30	33	8	15	2	3	48	13
2nd	2	2	0	0	19	21	0	0	2	3	23	6
3rd	6	7	0	0	11	12	8	15	0	0	25	7
Independent practice (I)												
Total	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0
2nd	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0
3rd	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
E/M												
Total	6	7	16	17	0	0	7	13	12	19	41	11
2nd	4	5	10	11	0	0	5	9	3	5	22	6
3rd	2	2	6	7	0	0	2	4	9	15	19	5
E/G												
Total	12	15	16	17	8	9	8	15	2	3	46	13
2nd	10	12	9	10	0	0	8	15	1	2	28	8
3rd	2	2	7	8	8	9	0	0	1	2	18	5
E/I												
Total	0	0	11	12	3	3	2	4	0	0	0	0
2nd	0	0	7	8	3	3	1	2	0	0	0	0
3rd	0	0	4	4	0	0	1	2	0	0	0	0
M/G												
Total	0	0	0	0	5	5	0	0	0	0	5	1
2nd	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
3rd	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
M/I												
Total	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
2nd	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
3rd	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0

(*table continues*)

E/G												
Total	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0

	Program A		Program B		Program C		Program D		Program E		Total	
Variable	*f*	%	*f*	%	*f*	%	*f*	%	*f*	%	*f*	%
2nd	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
3rd	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
G/I												
Total	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
2nd	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
3rd	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
M/G/I												
Total	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0
2nd	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0
3rd	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
E/M/I												
Total	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
2nd	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
3rd	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
E/M/G												
Total	22	27	33	36	36	39	27	50	14	23	132	36
2nd	8	10	11	12	19	21	18	33	9	15	65	18`
3rd	14	17	22	24	17	18	9	17	5	8	67	18
E/M/G/I												
Total	0	0	4	4	6	7	0	0	3	5	13	4
2nd	0	0	3	3	0	0	0	0	1	2	4	1
3rd	0	0	1	1	6	7	0	0	2	3	9	2
No coding												
Total	33	40	0	0	1	1	0	0	27	44	61	17
2nd	19	23	0	0	1	1	0	0	27	44	47	13
3rd	14	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	14	4
Total												
Total	82	22	92	25	92	25	54	15	62	17	366	100
2nd	44	12	48	13	50	14	33	9	43	12	207	57
3rd	38	10	44	12	42	11	21	6	19	5	159	43

more than half of all codings in Program D, two times those of Programs A and E. The explanation/guided practice groups (E/G) ranked second in all programs expect Program E. The third ranking group, explanation/model (E/M) ranked either second or third in Programs B, D, and E. Only 4% (13) of the lessons reported lessons included all four categories (E/M/G/I)

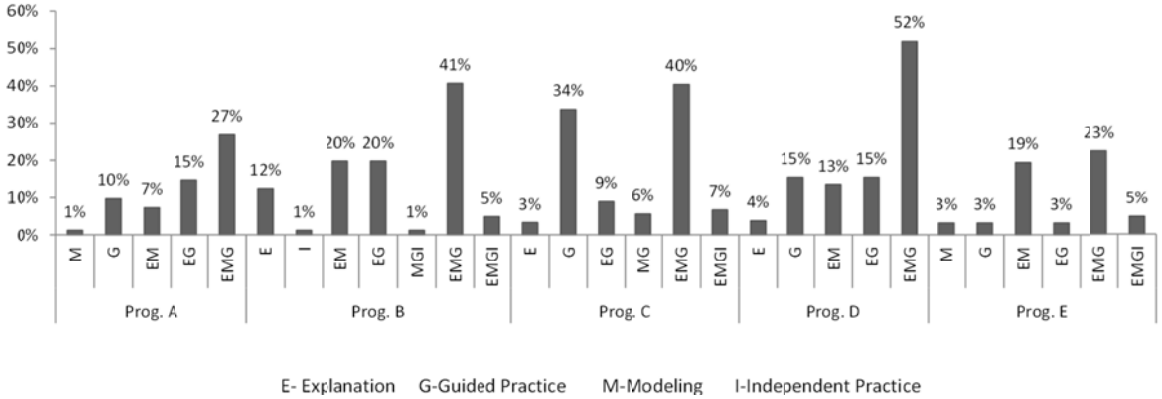

Figure 15. Total percentages of combined instructional delivery of five reading program's teachers' editions disaggregated by program.

Combinations of instructional delivery across grade levels varied as shown in Figure 16. According to the graph, both grades reported codings in seven of the 15 categories, with third grade indicating a greater percentage of explanation/model/guided (E/M/G) practice than second grade. Findings from both grades were similar in the areas of guided practice (G) and independent practice (I), explanation/guided practice (E/G), and explanation/modeling (E/M). Six percent of the lessons that coded all four categories (E/M/G/I) occurred in third grade, three times those of second grade. Table 8 provides more detailed information for this area.

Comparison to evidence-based reading fluency practices. Several evidence-based fluency methods incorporate multiple elements of Pearson and Gallagher's (1983) model of gradual release of responsibility: (a) explanation of skill, including declarative, procedural, and conditional knowledge; (b) teacher modeling, with or without a script for a think aloud; (c) guided practice with feedback; and (d) independent practice. Such methods outlined in the NRP (NIHCD, 2000) included FORI (Stahl et al., 1997), FDL (Rasinski et al., 1994), ORL (Hoffman, 1987; Reutzel & Hollingsworth, 1993), and NIM (Flood et al., 2005). In that 40% of the lessons coded in the CRPs included some form of an explanation, teacher modeling, and guided practice, one might assume that the level of explicit instruction does align with the research on fluency

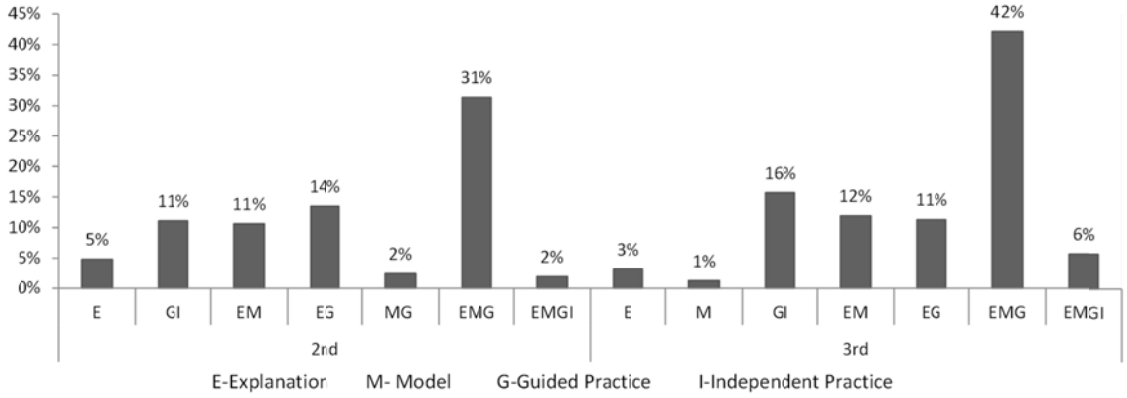

Figure 16. Total percentages of instructional delivery of reading fluency instruction in grades 2 and 3 of five reading program's teachers' editions.

instruction. Whether or not this percentage is sufficient for the appropriate fluency development for students in grades 2 and 3 cannot be determined at this time.

Combinations of Reading Modes Within Lessons

The frequencies and percentages of reading mode were just reported at the instructional move level, many of which may have occurred within the same lesson. This section will report on the combinations of various reading modes that were suggested to be taught in a given lesson. For coding, the seven categories of reading mode were grouped by type, based on levels of scaffolded reading support. The two categories in which the teacher was doing the reading, "listening to text" and "listening while reading" were grouped into the "listening" category. Those categories in which the student was engaged in reading the text together with a teacher or peer with opportunities for modeling and receiving feedback (choral, echo, and partner) were classified as "guided practice." Both oral independent and silent reading were consolidated into the "independent" group.

The percentages of the different reading mode combinations are displayed in Figure 17. Guided practice and the combination of listening/guided practice were reported most frequently accounting for approximately two fifths of the lessons. Lessons that included students listening to

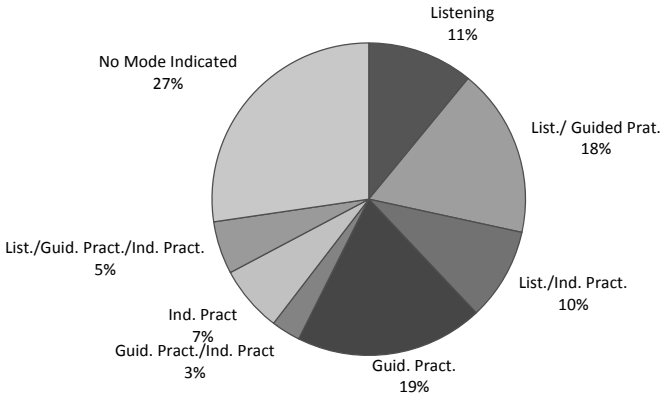

Figure 17. Total percentage of combined reading mode in five CRP's teachers' editions.

text (listening and listening/guided practice accounted for an additional one-fifth of the lessons Only five percent (20 lessons) incorporated elements from all three categories.

Combinations of reading modes by program and grade. Figures 18 and 19 display the percentages of reading mode combinations by program in two different formats. Figure 18 reveals the diverse range amongst programs within the different mode combinations. The greatest discrepancy occurred in the listening/guided practice combination in which the range of percentages was 38% between Programs A and D (4% and 42%, respectively.) The range of percentages between programs in the three categories of listening, guided practice and independent practice were less dramatic with 19%, 16%, and 21%, respectively At 11%, Program E reported almost double the percentage of lessons that included listening, guided practice, and independent practice. Figure 19 provides another visual breakdown of the various modes within programs, including the percentage of lessons with no coding for reading mode. These range from 2% in Program D to 48% in Program A.

A graphic representation of the percentages of reading mode combination is displayed in Figure 20. It seems that more lessons included guided practice and listening/guided practice activities in both grades 2 and 3. Only 2% of the lessons in grade 2 included all three categories

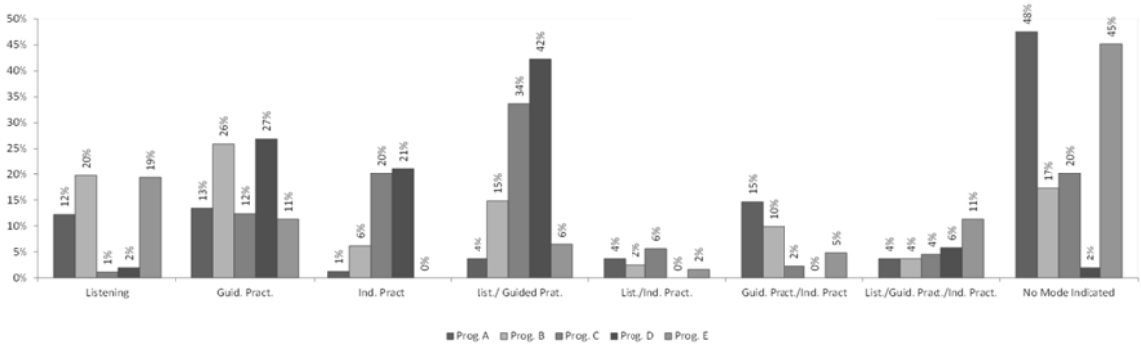

Figure 18. Total percentages of combined reading modes of five reading program's teachers' editions.

of listening, guided practice, and independent practice, whereas, 10% of the lessons in grade 3. More than a third of the lessons in grade 2 did not indicate the mode for reading. Table 9 provides a more detailed breakdown of the frequencies and parentages of the different reading mode combinations.

Comparison to evidence-based reading fluency practices. More than a third (36%) of the lessons in the CRPs suggested multiple modes of reading during a lesson. Half of those (18%) combined the modes of students listening to text being modeled followed with guided practice of text reading. The guided practices suggested by the CRPs include partner, choral, and echo reading. This fluency instruction occurred not only during single lessons but also across several lessons during the week. This aligns to the format suggested in several evidence-based methods (FORI, FDL, and ORL) in which the teacher models fluent reading while students follow the text, after which the students are provided opportunities to practice the text with the teacher or with a partner. Only 5% of the lessons included independent practice following teacher explanation/ modeling and guided practice. Interestingly, the ORL also suggested that students practice the text independently. What is not known at this time is the ratio of varied modes that is needed to foster fluency development. Until such time, teachers will need to monitor individual student progress and make adjustments accordingly.

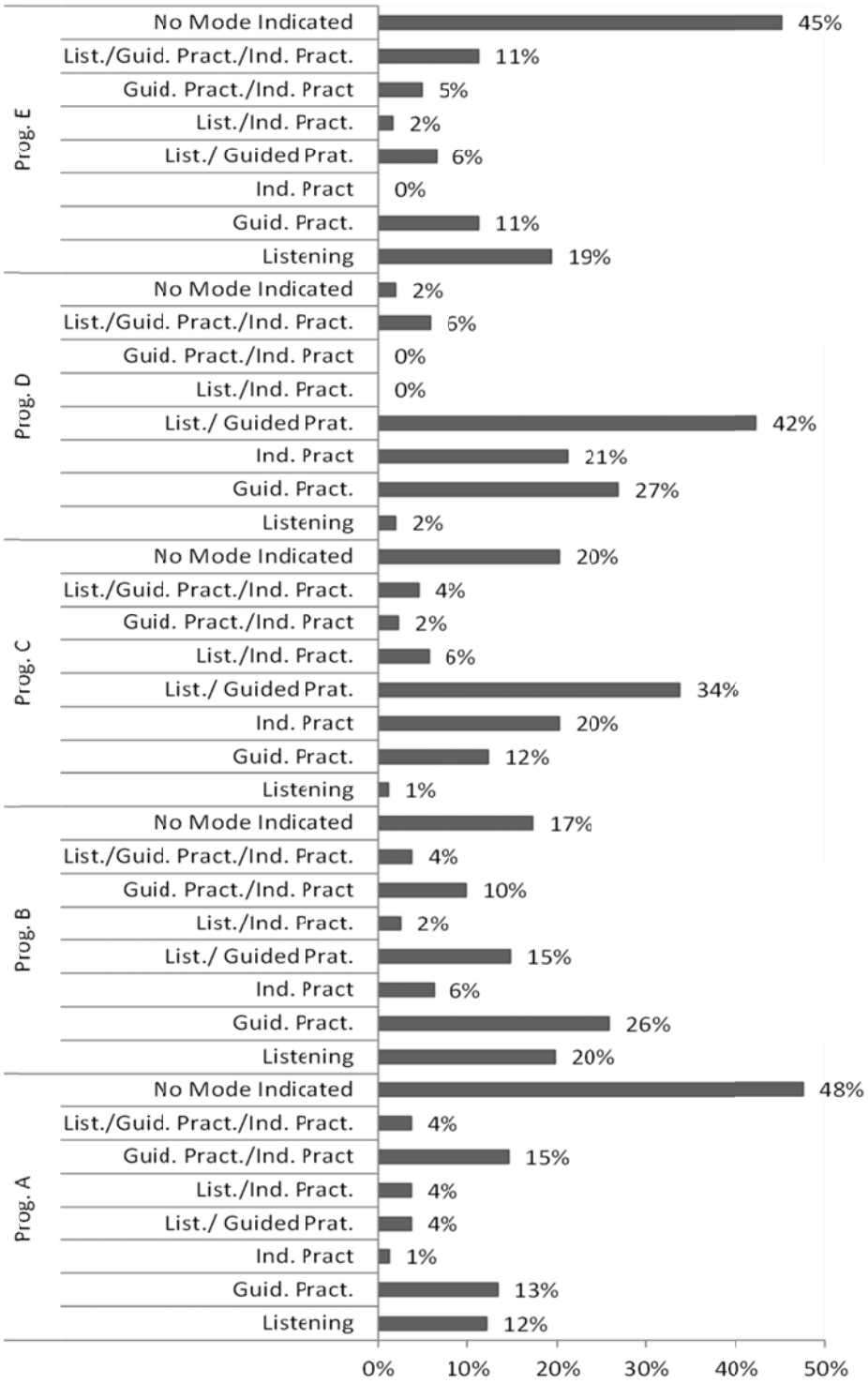

Figure 19. Total percentages of combined instructional delivery of five reading program's teachers' editions disaggregated by program.

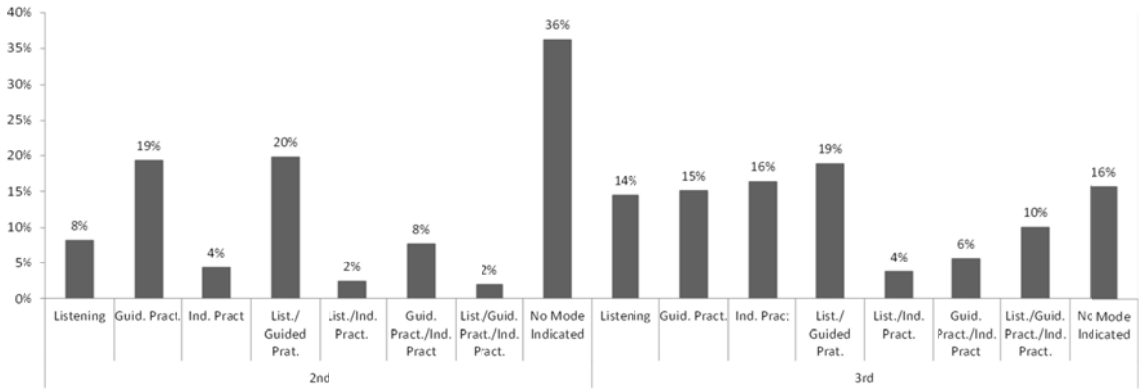

Figure 20. Total percentages of combined reading mode of reading fluency instruction in grades 2 and 3 of five reading program's teachers' editions.

Combinations of Instructional Delivery Components and Repeated Reading of Text Within Lessons

A major finding of the NRP (NICHD, 2000) was that repeated reading of text combined with guided oral reading procedures, which included the use of modeling, scaffolded or guided practice and/or feedback, had a clear impact on the reading ability of young children. A more recent study conducted by Stahl and colleagues (2005), which incorporated FORI reported significant growth gains in 14 second-grade classrooms. This method of guided oral repeated reading of text included similar practices: (a) teacher models fluent reading including a discussion of the text; (b) partner rereading of the text; (c) teacher-led choral and/or echoic reading; and (d) home reading. Previously in this chapter, the frequencies and percentages of combinations of delivery components (explanation, modeling, guidance with feedback, and independent practice) were reported. This section reports the findings of lessons that combined these components of guided instruction with repeated reading of text.

Fifty-one percent (185) of the lessons combined some component(s) of instructional delivery with repeated reading (see Table 10). As summarized by the bar graph in Figure 21, 25%, or one fourth, of lessons combined explanation/modeling/guided practice with repeated

Table 9

Total Frequencies and Percentages of Combined Reading Modes for Reading Fluency

	Program A		Program B		Program C		Program D		Program E		Total	
Variable	*f*	%	*f*	%	*f*	%	*f*	%	*f*	%	*f*	%
Listening												
Total	10	12	16	20	1	1	1	2	12	19	40	11
2nd	3	4	9	11	1	1	1	2	3	5	17	5
3rd	7	9	7	9	0	0	0	0	9	15	23	6
Guided practice												
Total	11	13	21	26	11	12	14	27	7	11	64	17
2nd	6	7	13	16	0	0	14	27	7	11	40	11
3rd	5	6	8	10	11	12	0	0	0	0	24	7
Independent practice												
Total	1	1	5	6	18	20	11	21	0	0	35	10
2nd	0	0	4	5	3	3	2	4	0	0	9	2
3rd	1	1	1	1	15	17	9	17	0	0	26	7
Listening/guided practice												
Total	3	4	12	15	30	34	22	42	4	6	71	19
2nd	3	4	0	0	23	26	13	25	2	3	41	11
3rd	0	0	12	15	7	8	9	17	2	3	30	8
Listening/independent practice												
Total	3	4	2	2	5	6	0	0	1	2	11	3
2nd	3	4	1	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	5	1
3rd	0	0	1	1	4	4	0	0	1	2	6	2
Guided practice/independent practice												
Total	12	15	8	10	2	2	0	0	3	5	25	7
2nd	6	7	6	7	1	1	0	0	3	5	16	4
3rd	6	7	2	2	1	1	0	0	0	0	9	2
Listening/guided practice/ independent practice												
Total	3	4	3	4	4	4	3	6	7	11	20	5
2nd	0	0	1	1	0	0	1	2	2	3	4	1
3rd	3	4	2	2	4	4	2	4	5	8	16	4
No code												
Total	39	48	14	17	18	20	1	2	28	45	100	27
2nd	23	28	7	9	18	20	1	2	26	42	75	20
3rd	16	20	7	9	0	0	0	0	2	3	25	
Total												
Total	82	100	81	100	89	100	52	100	62	100	366	100
2nd	44	54	41	51	47	53	32	62	43	69	207	57
3rd	38	46	39	48	36	40	19	37	19	31	159	43

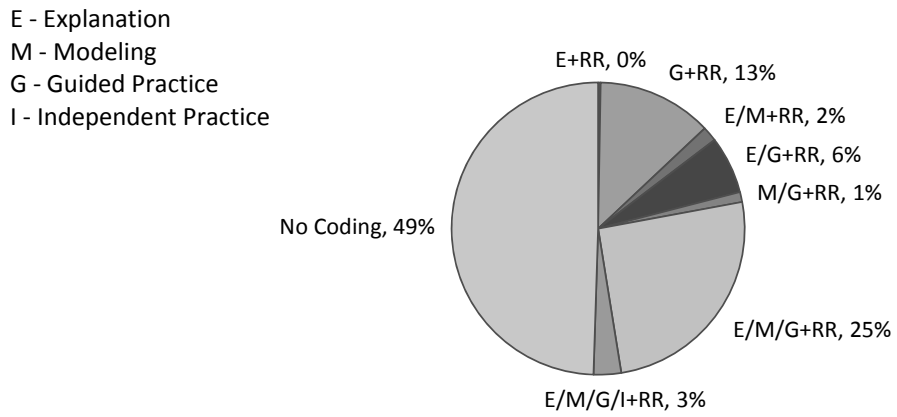

Figure 21. Total percentage of instructional delivery combinations with repeated reading in five CRPs' teachers' editions.

reading (E/M/G + RR). Another 25% had a summed total that consisted of combinations that included either guided practice, modeling, or a combination of both: Guided practice with repeated reading (G + RR); explanation/modeling with repeated reading (E/M + RR); explanation/guided practice with repeated reading (E/G + RR); modeling/guided practice with repeated reading (M/G + RR); and/or explanation/modeling/guided practice/independent practice with repeated reading (E/M/G/I + RR).

Instructional delivery combinations with repeated reading by program and grade level. Figure 22 indicates that the percentages of lessons that combined elements of scaffolded instruction with repeated reading of text varied greatly across programs. Program C, with 82%, and Program D, with 65%, reported the greatest percentages of summed totals; whereas, Program E had a summed total of 26%. The explanation/model/guided practice with repeated reading (E/M/G +RR) ranked highest in all five programs; however, Program C and Program D's totals (38% and 31%, respectively) in this area were almost double those of Program A and E's totals. The categories explanation/ guided practice with repeated reading (E/G + RR) and/or guided practice with repeated reading (G + RR) ranked second within the total percentages of the five

Table 10

Frequencies and Percentages of Instructional Delivery Combinations with Repeated Reading in Five CRPs' Teachers' Editions

	Program A		Program B		Program C		Program D		Program E		Total	
Variable	*f*	%	*f*	%	*f*	%	*f*	%	*f*	%	*f*	%
E + RR												
Total	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	2	0	0	1	0
2nd	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	2	0	0	1	0
3rd	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
M + RR												
Total	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
2nd	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
3rd	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
G + RR												
Total	7	9	0	0	29	33	8	15	2	3	46	13
2nd	2	2	0	0	19	21	0	0	2	3	23	6
3rd	5	6	0	0	10	11	8	15	0	0	23	6
I + RR												
Total	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0
2nd	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0
3rd	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
E/M + RR												
Total	4	5	0	0	0	0	1	2	1	2	6	2
2nd	3	4	0	0	0	0	1	2	0	0	4	1
3rd	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	2	2	1
E/G + RR												
Total	8	10	6	7	0	0	8	15	1	2	23	6
2nd	7	9	5	6	0	0	8	15	1	2	21	6
3rd	1	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	1
E/I + RR												
Total	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
2nd	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
3rd	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
M/G + RR												
Total	0	0	0	0	4	4	0	0	0	0	4	1
2nd	0	0	0	0	4	4	0	0	0	0	4	1
3rd	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
M/I + RR												
Total	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
2nd	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
3rd	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
E/I + RR												
Total	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
2nd	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
3rd	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0

(*table continues*)

	Program A		Program B		Program C		Program D		Program E		Total	
Variable	*f*	%	*f*	%	*f*	%	*f*	%	*f*	%	*f*	%
G/I + RR												
Total	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
2nd	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
3rd	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
M/G/I + RR												
Total	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0
2nd	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0
3rd	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
E/M/I + RR												
Total	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
2nd	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
3rd	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
E/M/G + RR												
Total	13	16	19	23	34	38	16	31	10	16	92	25
2nd	5	6	7	9	17	19	12	23	8	13	49	13
3rd	8	10	12	15	17	19	4	8	2	3	43	12
E/M/G/I + RR												
Total	0	0	3	4	6	7	0	0	2	3	11	3
2nd	0	0	3	4	0	0	0	0	1	2	4	1
3rd	0	0	0	0	6	7	0	0	1	2	7	2
Total												
Total	32	39	30	37	73	82	34	65	16	26	185	51
2nd	17	21	17	21	40	45	22	42	12	19	108	30
3rd	15	18	13	16	33	37	12	23	4	6	77	21

Note. E = Explanation; M = Model; G = Guidance w/feedback; I = Independent practice; RR = Repeated reading

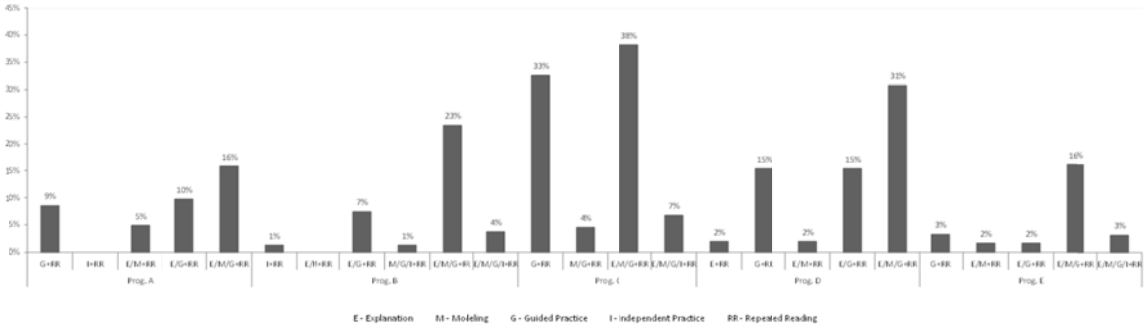

Figure 22. Percentages of instructional delivery combinations with repeated reading by program five CRPs' teachers' editions.

programs; however, Program C's total percentage of 31% was more than twice that of any of the other four programs.

The differences in percentages of combined instructional delivery with repeated reading of text across grades 2 and 3 vary slightly. The bar graph in Figure 23 shows that in all the categories except for explanation/guided practice with repeated reading (total of 6 % in grade 2 and 1% in grade 3) were all within one percentage point of each other. Table 10 presents a more detailed breakdown of percentages of frequencies and percentages of combined instructional delivery that incorporated the use of repeated reading.

Comparison to evidence-based reading fluency practices. The NRP (2000) analyzed 51 studies involving GRORF and reported a moderate effect size of 0.41 on students' reading fluency development (Rasinski et al., 2011). Almost half (48%) of the lessons coded combined guided practice with repeated reading of text. Most of these also included teacher explanation and modeling. As discussed in previous sections of this chapter, whether or not this percentage is sufficient for fostering fluency development in students is not certain; however, this does suggest an alignment of instruction in the CRPs to evidence-based practices.

Text Encounters

Since Samuels introduced the repeated reading method in 1979, the practice of students

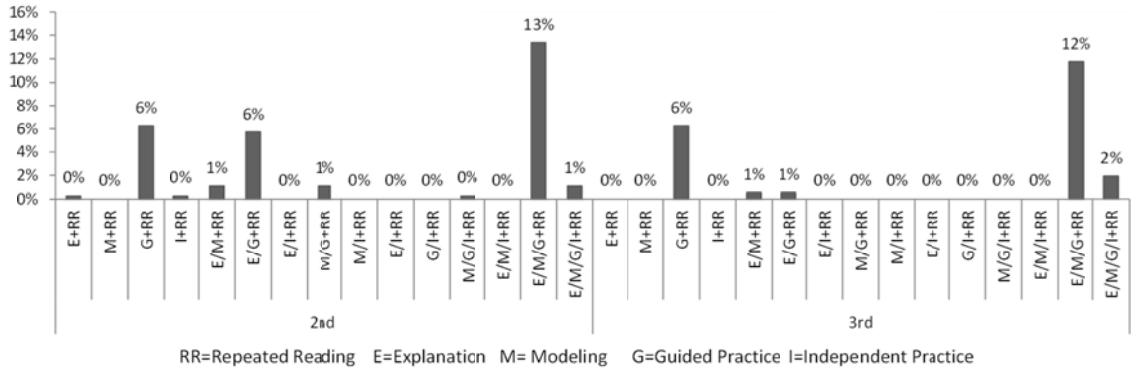

Figure 23. Percentages of instructional delivery combinations with repeated reading by grades in five CRPs' teachers' editions.

reading passages orally multiple times has been documented by research as positively affecting fluency development (NICHD, 2000). This section describes the number of encounters that students engaged in repeated reading of the same text, including repetitions on the same day as well as text read over multiple days of the week. Repeated reading text included varied lengths of text including paragraphs; multiple paragraphs and pages, as well as entire text selections. A lesson coded as one repetition represented a teacher having students read the passage twice, a two indicates more than one repetition, including the term "several." Four plus (4+) indicates that the teacher was directed to have the students read the passage five or more times.

According to the percentages of same day repeated reading of text presented in Figure 24, one-fifth of the coded lessons suggested that the students read the passage repeatedly three or four times. Almost another fifth indicated that students repeat reading the text one time. The lowest percentages of lessons suggest that text be read with two repetitions. Nearly half of the lessons did not indicate the number of text repetitions.

Same day text repetitions by program and grade level. Figure 25 shows the percentage of same day text repetition readings for the five programs. Lessons from four of the programs suggested that students repeat reading the text one time. This was recommended most by Program D. Half of the lessons in Program C suggest that text be read three or four times and a

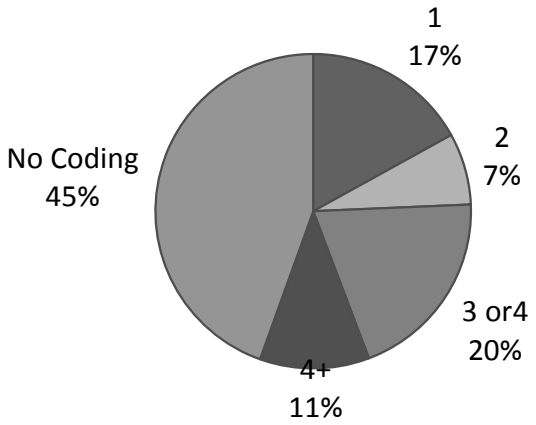

Figure 24. Total percentage of same day text repetitions in five CRP's teachers' editions.

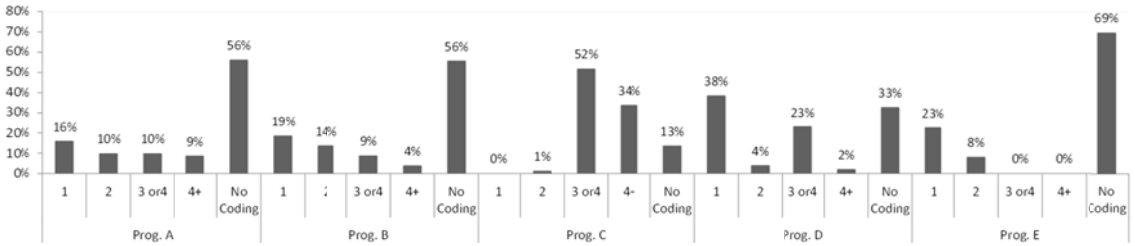

Figure 25. Total percentages of same day text repetitions of five reading program's teachers' editions.

third more suggest more than four repetitions. Four of the five programs suggested two repeated readings of the text in less than 10% of the lessons.

The percentages of same day repeated reading of text by grade appear in Figure 26. As depicted in the graph, the percentage of both 1 repetition reading of text are about equal in both grades as are those in both grades for 2 repetitions; however, the one repetition group is twice those of the 2 repetition group. More 3-4 repetitions are reported in third grade; whereas, more 4+ repetitions are reported in second grade. Table 11 presents the frequencies and percentages of the number of repetitions of text reading on the same day.

Repetitions of same text reading across days. Next, the number of repetitions of reading text across days in a week will be discussed. It should be noted that individual lessons did not specify how many days text was to be read. This coding is based on the day of the week and the suggested pattern of text source described earlier in this chapter. For example, in Program A each week, the main selection is read on Days 1, 2, and 3. Therefore, if the students were reading from the main selection on Day1 of that program, then the text would be coded as being one encounter; however, if the coding was on Day 2 then it would be coded as being the second encounter for that particular lesson.

Figure 27 displays that almost half of all codings suggested reading the text for 1 day. Almost another third directed teachers to have students read the same text for 2 days. The chart

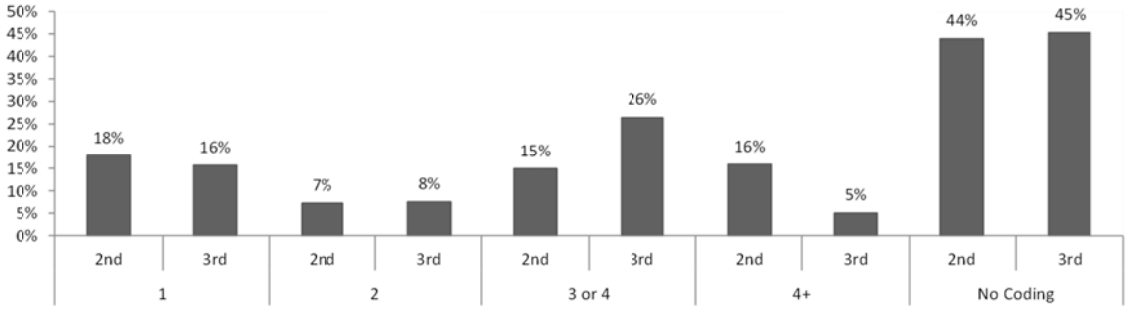

Figure 26. Total percentages of same day text repetitions in grades 2 and 3 of five reading program's teachers' editions.

Table 11

Total Frequencies and Percentages of Same Day Text Repetitions

	Program A		Program B		Program C		Program D		Program E		Total	
Variable	*f*	%	*f*	%	*f*	%	*f*	%	*f*	%	*f*	%
1 day												
Total	13	16	15	19	0	0	20	38	14	23	62	17
2nd	6	7	10	12	0	0	12	23	9	15	37	10
3rd	7	9	5	6	0	0	8	15	5	8	25	7
2 days												
Total	8	10	11	14	1	1	2	4	5	8	27	7
2nd	6	7	3	4	0	0	2	4	4	6	15	4
3rd	2	2	8	10	1	1	0	0	1	2	12	3
3 or 4 days												
Total	8	10	7	9	46	52	12	23	0	0	73	20
2nd	0	0	3	4	20	22	8	15	0	0	31	8
3rd	8	10	4	5	26	29	4	8	0	0	42	11
4+ days												
Total	7	9	3	4	30	34	1	2	0	0	41	11
2nd	7	9	2	2	24	27	0	0	0	0	33	9
3rd	0	0	1	1	6	7	1	2	0	0	8	2
No coding												
Total	46	56	45	56	12	13	17	33	43	69	163	45
2nd	25	30	23	28	3	3	10	19	30	48	91	25
3rd	21	26	22	27	9	10	7	13	13	21	72	20
Total												
Total	82	100	81	100	89	100	52	100	62	100	366	100
2nd	44	54	41	51	47	53	32	62	43	69	207	57
3rd	38	46	39	48	36	40	19	37	19	31	159	43

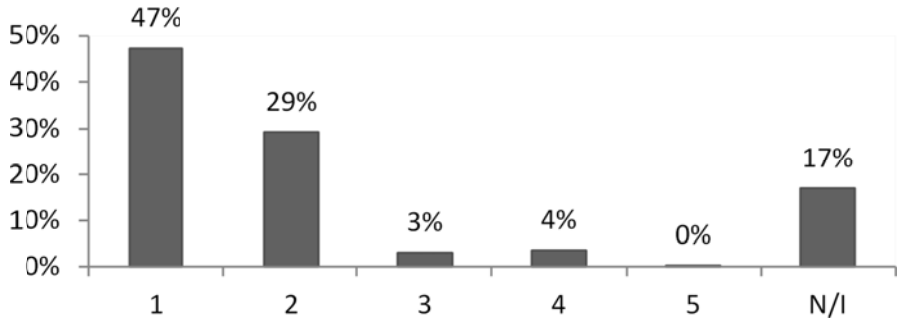

Figure 27. Total percentage of text repetitions across days in five CRP's teachers' editions.

indicates that no texts were being read over a 5-day period; however, one lesson in Program B was coded as having been read across all 5 days.

Repetitions of same text reading across days by program and grade. Figures 28 and 29 present the percentages of text repetitions across days by both program and day. Codings for 1-day text encounters in Programs A and C accounted for almost two thirds of their total. Half of the codings in Program D took place over 2 days as did a third of Program C. Program B was the only program to indicate percentages of lessons that repeated text more than 2 days.

Looking at repeated reading of the same text over days, it appears that almost half the codings in grade 2 and over half of those in grade 3 were read for one day. Nearly a third of second grade and more than a fourth of third grade's codings reported reading text over a 2-day period. Table 12 details the percentages and frequencies of repeated reading of text that occurred on the same day.

Repetitions of same day text reading across days. In this section, it has been reported that teachers were directed to have students read the same text multiple times over several days. This would mean that for students reading the same text 3 times a day for 2 days, the students would have read the text a total of 6 times. Table 13 is a crosstabulation displaying the number of lessons per program and grade level of same day text repetitions with multiple days of reading the

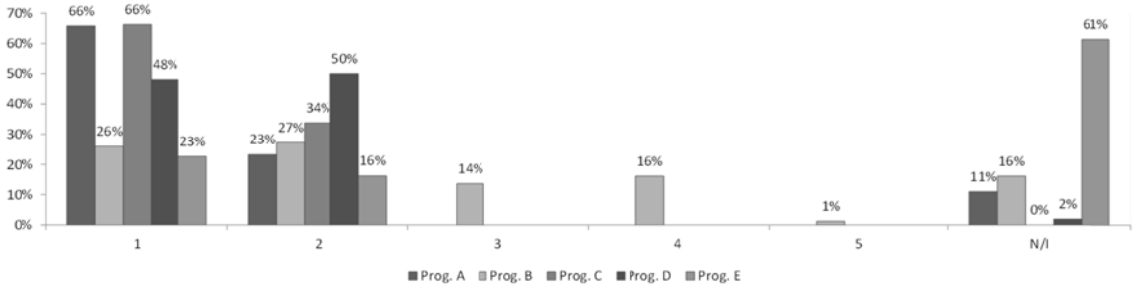

Figure 28. Total percentages of repetitions of same day text reading across days of five reading program's teachers' editions.

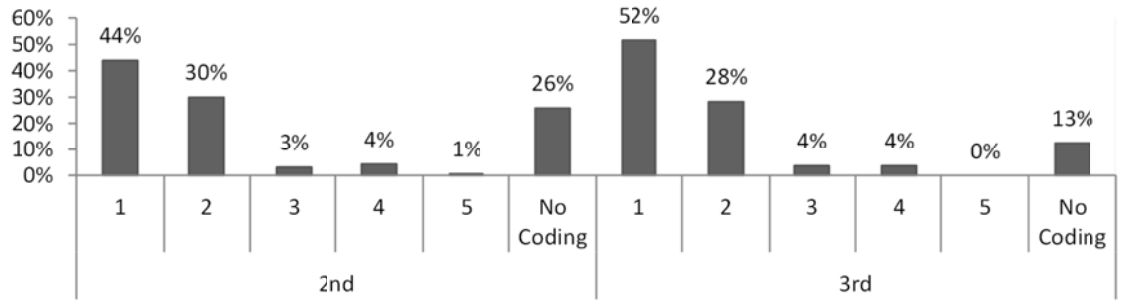

Figure 29. Total percentages of same text reading across days in grades 2 and 3 of five reading program's teachers' editions.

text. For example, in Program A on the row labeled "2 Days," four lessons were coded under the "2 repetitions" column. This indicates that the program suggests that students read the text or portions of the text a total of 8 times. It seems the greatest number of repetitions occur on days 1 and 2 with no more than three or four readings per day, for total of no more than 6-8 readings. The table indicates that texts in three lessons in Program B were read three or four times over 3 days, a total or 9-12 repetitions; assuming that the same portions of text were read each time.

Comparison to evidence-based reading fluency practices. The effective practice of repeated reading of text can be traced back to Samuels' (1979) repeated reading method. The NRP (NICHHD, 2000) reported that guided repeated reading of texts with feedback has been shown to be effective in promoting fluency development in young students. Since its publication,

Table 12

Total Frequencies and Percentages of Same Text Repetitions Across Days

	Program A		Program B		Program C		Program D		Program E		Total	
Variable	*f*	%	*f*	%	*f*	%	*f*	%	*f*	%	*f*	%
1 time												
Total	54	66	21	26	59	66	25	48	14	23	173	47
2nd	33	40	9	11	32	36	9	17	8	13	91	25
3rd	21	26	12	15	27	30	16	31	6	10	82	22
2 times												
Total	19	23	22	27	30	34	26	50	10	16	107	29
2nd	9	11	11	14	15	17	22	42	5	8	62	17
3rd	10	12	11	14	15	17	4	8	5	8	45	12
3 times												
Total	0	0	11	14	0	0	0	0	0	0	11	3
2nd	0	0	5	6	0	0	0	0	0	0	5	1
3rd	0	0	6	7	0	0	0	0	0	0	6	2
4 times												
Total	0	0	13	16	0	0	0	0	0	0	13	4
2nd	0	0	7	9	0	0	0	0	0	0	7	2
3rd	0	0	6	7	0	0	0	0	0	0	6	2
5 times												
Total	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0
2nd	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0
NI												
Total	9	11	13	16	0	0	1	2	38	61	61	17
2nd	2	2	8	10	0	0	1	26	30	48	41	11
3rd	7	9	5	6	0	0	0	0	8	13	20	5
Total												
Total	82	100	81	100	89	100	52	100	62	100	366	100
2nd	38	46	40	49	42	47	20	38	19	31	159	43
3rd	44	54	41	51	47	53	32	62	43	69	207	57

more recent studies further support the use of repeated reading (e.g., Daly, Bonfiglio, Perampierie, & Foreman-Yates, 2006; Devault & Joseph, 2004; Hiebert, 2005, 2006; Kuhn & Stahl, 2003). The fact that half of the lessons coded incorporated guided repeated reading indicates alignment to the research on this instructional practice. Four years following publication of the NRP, Therrien (2004) conducted another meta-analysis that identified important instructional components within repeated reading interventions. The findings of this study indicate that passages should be repeated no more than three to four times in order to positively

Table 13

Crosstabulation of Frequencies of Repetitions of Same Day Text Reading Across Multiple Days

	Program A (# repetitions)				Program B (# repetitions)				Program C (# repetitions)			Program D (# repetitions)				Program E (# repetitions)		
Variable	1	2	3 or 4	4+	1	2	3 or 4	4+	2	3 or 4	4+	1	2	3 or 4	4+	1	2	Total
1 day																		
Total	8	4	6	7	1	1				38	9	12			1	9	1	173
2nd	4	3		7	1					20	9	4				7	1	91
3rd	4	1	6			1				18		8			1	2		82
2 days																		
Total	5	4	2		3	4	4	1	1	8	21	8	2	12		5	4	107
2nd	2	3			1	2	1	1			15	8	2	8		2	3	62
3rd	3	1	2		2	2	3		1	8	6			4		3	1	45
3 days																		
Total					5	2	3											11
2nd					2	1	2											5
3rd					3	1	1											6
4 days																		
Total					6	4												13
2nd					6													7
3rd						4												6

impact comprehension. The pattern of instruction use of multiple reading of text indicates that most of the lessons in the CRPs suggested that text be read no more than four times; however, several lessons in four of the five programs indicated that students read the same text more times than necessary.

Part 3: Specific Methods of Instruction

The review of literature identified several methods of fluency instruction that have been shown to impact overall reading achievement. These methods incorporate multiple elements of explicit instruction and repeated reading of text in various modes. The intent of this section was to identify lessons where programs specifically labeled or mentioned these instructional methods by name. For instance, if the teacher's edition labeled the lesson Buddy Reading, or asked the student to follow Buddy Reading procedures, it was coded here as a Buddy Reading. However, if the teachers' edition instructed the teacher to have students read with a peer, the instructional move of that lesson was coded as partner reading in the READING MODE category, which data were presented earlier in this chapter. Of the various evidence-based reading fluency practice methods found in the CRP T.E.s, only five were identified by name: Buddy Reading, Assigned Partner Reading, Readers' Theatre, Tape-assisted Reading, and Word Practice. Figure 30 displays a bar graph representing the percentage of lessons that incorporated the use of these methods.

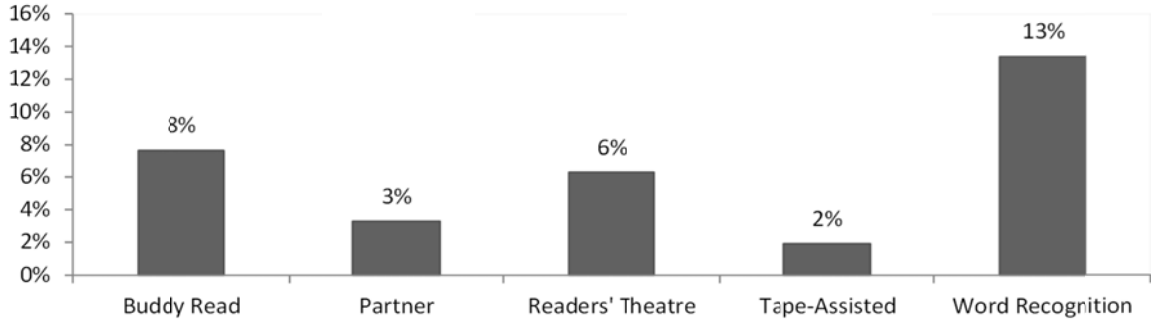

Figure 30. Total percentage of specific instructional methods in five CRP's teachers' editions.

Three programs specifically mentioned “buddy reading” and “partner reading” in which student read with another individual. Rasinski and colleagues (2011) used these terms as well, but also referred to “paired reading.” The difference being, partner/buddy reading is with a fellow student or peer, and paired reading is usually with an adult. Several studies found paired reading with an adult showed gains in word recognition and comprehension (Rasinski 1994; Rasinski et al., 2011). Unfortunately, no program suggested pairing students with an adult for fluency practice; however, several programs did suggest that teachers match or assign a less fluent reader with a more fluent reader. Therefore, two categories were used to delineate the coding of these two types of peer reading methods: Buddy Reading, in which the program suggested that the teacher have students read text orally together, and Assigned Partner Reading, in which the program directed the teacher to purposely assign a less fluent reader with a more fluent reader. It should be noted that all five programs reported the use of partner reading (see Part 1, Reading Mode); however, only Programs B and C mention this particular method in their lessons. Eight percent of the total lessons coded incorporated Buddy Reading; however, only 3% (12) of the lessons were coded as Assigned Partner Reading.

Readers’ Theatre uses the components of guided repeated oral reading while students rehearse plays, speeches, poems or other appropriate text until they are able to perform it fluently and with expression for an audience. Providing students with opportunities to rehearse and perform text readings has been found to have a positive effect on student reading outcomes. (Corcoran & Davis, 2005; Griffith & Rasinski, 2004; Keehn, 2003; Rasinski et al., 2011). As shown in Table 14, only one program, Program B, incorporated Readers’ Theatre as a means for building fluency. This occurred in 6% of this program’s lessons.

Two programs incorporated tape-assisted reading in which the students listen to and read along with an audio reading of text. The NRP (NICHD, 2000) and other studies indicate methods that incorporate technology to provide models of reading, practice and feedback are beneficial for

Table 14

Total Frequencies and Percentages of Specific Reading Fluency Instructional Methods

	Program A		Program B		Program C		Program D		Program E		Total	
Variable	*f*	%	*f*	%	*f*	%	*f*	%	*f*	%	*f*	%
Buddy read												
Total	0	0	9	11	18	20	1	2	0	0	28	8
2nd	0	0	7	9	13	15	1	2	0	0	21	6
3rd	0	0	2	2	5	6	0	0	0	0	7	2
Assigned partner read												
Total	0	0	7	9	5	6	0	0	0	0	12	3
2nd	0	0	3	4	5	6	0	0	0	0	8	2
3rd	0	0	4	5	0	0	0	0	0	0	4	1
Readers' theatre												
Total	0	0	23	28	0	0	0	0	0	0	23	6
2nd	0	0	12	15	0	0	0	0	0	0	12	3
3rd	0	0	11	14	0	0	0	0	0	0	11	3
Tape-assisted reading												
Total	0	0	2	2	0	0	0	0	5	8	7	2
2nd	0	0	2	2	0	0	0	0	5	8	7	2
Word practice												
Total	12	15	1	1	0	0	8	15	28	45	49	13
2nd	3	4	1	1	0	0	0	0	28	45	32	9
3rd	9	11	0	0	0	0	8	15	0	0	17	5
Total												
Total	12	15	42	52	23	26	9	17	33	53	119	33
n	82		81		89		52		62		366	100

increasing fluency (Rasinski, 1990). Programs B and E are the only programs that suggested the use of tape-assisted reading; however, the total percentage for both was less than 2%.

All but one program incorporated the use of word practice drills. Recent studies indicate that word and phrase drill combined with repeated reading produced substantial improvements in oral reading especially if students received word analysis and phonics instruction followed by reading practice with a high percentage of words that matched the word study (Begeny, Daly, & Valleley, 2006; Martens et al., 2007; Vadasy et al., 2006). Almost half the lessons (45%) coded in Program E included word list practice. Programs A and D both included word practice in 15% of

the lessons. Only one lesson in Program B and no lessons in Program C were coded for word practice.

Several methods were not mentioned by name; however, instructional elements of these practices were evident in many of the lessons found in the CRPs. Those that have already been discussed in this chapter include FORI, ORL, FDL, GRORF, and NIM. Other evidence-based practices that were not mentioned in the programs were RAVE-O, wide reading, scaffolded silent reading, shared book experience, cross-age tutoring, and computer-based reading. The absence of these practices does not necessarily indicate a gap in instruction; however, publishers may consider these methods for inclusion in future CRP publications.

Another aspect of determining curriculum alignment to evidence-based instruction to identify those methods that do NOT have research backing and were not named in the CRPs. Although two such practices may have been and still are prevalent in classrooms today, the current CRPs did not name or suggested the use of either Silent Sustained Reading or Round Robin Reading. Neither of these have sufficient evidence of a converging nature to warrant their use in classrooms (NICHD, 2000; Rasisnski et al., 2011).

Summary

This study sought to describe fluency instruction in the teachers' editions of five CRPs at the second and third grade levels. A sample of 366 lessons was coded according to five categories.

The first category was instructional focus. Based on fluency definitions and theory, each lesson was coded for rate, accuracy, expression and comprehension. A focus on expression occurred more often than the other three categories. Rate and accuracy were the focus for nearly thirty percent each in the overall coding of the lessons. When lessons were coded for multiple foci, expression alone ranked highest again; however, the focus combinations of rate/accuracy

and rate/accuracy/expression occurred as often as rate and accuracy alone.

The delivery of instruction was the next category examined based on the four elements of the explicit instruction model: Skill explanation, modeling, guided practice, and independent practice. Teachers were directed to provide guided practice more frequently than the other three elements. When the lessons were analyzed to determine the percentage of multiple uses of these areas, the combination of explanation/model/guided practice appeared in a third of the lessons that included any elements of explicit instruction. Only 4% of the lessons included all four elements in one lesson.

The third category by which lessons were coded was the mode of reading suggested to be done either by the teacher, the student, or a combination of both. Reading with a partner and students tracking the print while listening to the teacher read orally was suggested most frequently by the programs. Listening only to text being read, echo reading, and silent reading combined occurred in less than ten percent of the lessons. This was reflected as well in lessons that included multiple modes or reading. The combination of listening and guided practice occurred most frequently; whereas, the combination of all three, listening, guided practice and independent reading, was reported in only 5% of lessons.

The fourth coding category was text encounter-referring to how many times students repeatedly read the same text, either in the same lesson or over several days. Almost a third of the lessons, (31%) suggested the text be read with 3 or more repetitions. The majority of lessons also suggested that text be read over 1 or 2 days.

The last category, specific instructional methods, identified five methods supported by research that were named by the different programs and ranked accordingly: Building automaticity through word recognition practice, partner reading, buddy reading, readers' theatre, and tape-assisted reading.

The use of these different categories helped to answer the questions of this study as to

how fluency was suggested to be taught. In the next and final chapter, the significance and possible explanations for these results will be discussed. In addition, the limitations of the study and potential areas for future investigation will be addressed.

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION

Fluency was once considered the ultimate goal of reading instruction in early American schools (Smith, 2002). However, by the turn of the millennia, researchers were referring to oral reading fluency as the "neglected goal of reading" (Allington, 1983, p. 556; 2006a, 2006b; Smith, 2002). Over the past decade, based on the findings of the NRP (NICHD, 2000) the ability to read orally with speed, accuracy, and expression was declared one of five essential components of reading instruction. Thus, elementary classroom teachers are now encouraged to include oral reading fluency development as an integral part of evidence-based reading instruction. As a result, oral reading fluency once again attained a position of prominence in reading instruction. This was so much the case, that in 2010, one western state legislature passed legislation requiring school districts to report annually to the state department of education oral reading rate and accuracy scores for all first, second, and third grade students.

A recent survey published in 2007 (Dewitz et al., 2009) indicated that the majority (73%) of elementary schools in the US use a CRP for reading instruction. Given the fact that fluency is now considered an essential component of evidence-based reading instruction, one might assume that CRPs include many explicit lessons for teaching reading fluency; however, no studies have been conducted to investigate this assumption. Therefore, the purpose of this current study was to examine reading fluency instruction in five top-selling nationally disseminated CRPs' teachers' editions at the second and third grade levels. One thousand eight hundred twenty-two fluency lessons were identified and numbered. A random number generator was used to randomly select a 20% sample from each program and grade, yielding a total of 366 lessons for inclusion in the study. A content analysis research design (Krippendorff, 1980, 2004) was used to answer the study's research questions.

1. How are fluency skills taught? This may include:
    a. Recommendations as to how the teacher is to instruct and encourage students to practice these skills.
    b. Recommendations for tasks to assist students in learning about and practicing these skills.
    c. Patterns of instruction and practice such as consistency, frequency, and duration.
2. How do reading fluency instructional practices in core programs compare to evidence-based reading fluency instructional practices defined in current research?

The final chapter of this dissertation is divided into three major sections. Section one presents a discussion of the results from this study on suggestions for teaching reading fluency found in top selling, nationally disseminated CRP teachers' editions. In the second section, the study's limitations/delimitations are discussed. The final section of this chapter presents a summary, conclusions, and suggestions for future research.

The investigator of this study decided the best way to share the findings of this study was through the eyes of a reading coordinator who might consult with a group of second and third grade teachers who were using any one of the five top-selling CRPs to discuss fluency development of the students to which they have charge. A major part of the discussion would be to look at the strengths of the programs including the format and content of the lessons as well as the delivery of instruction relative to those practices that theory and research findings indicate as having a positive impact on students' fluency development. On the other hand, the discussion would also have to include aspects of the different programs that would necessitate the classroom teachers to develop and provide additional instruction, scale back or omit instruction, or alter lessons or portions thereof in order to adequately build students' abilities to read fluently. With this in mind, both the strengths and concerns of the following areas will be discussed: (a) focus of instruction, (b) instructional delivery and reading modes done only by the teacher (explanation

and modeling), (c) instructional delivery and mode of reading done with teacher and students (guided reading procedures), (d) repeated reading of texts, and (e) reading mode done solely by students (independent reading).

Focus of Instruction

This first section discusses the content or instructional focus prescribed in the CRPs and its alignment with the definition and theoretical constructs of reading fluency. The NRP (NICHD, 2000) and other researchers (Thurlow & van den Broek, 1997) have described four characteristics of fluent readers: (1) they have the ability to read text accurately, (2) with appropriate speed, (3) and with proper expression, (4) while comprehending the text. All lessons were coded for one or multiple combinations of these four characteristics.

Several key findings from the codings for instructional focus emerged. First, virtually all lessons were classified as addressing one or more of the four characteristics of reading fluency. Interestingly, the findings indicate that more lessons taught rate and accuracy together than either of these two characteristics was taught separately. All five programs reviewed included a separate section for teaching comprehension skills and strategies; therefore, the codings for comprehension were only those included in and related to the fluency lesson. An example of a lesson that was coded as comprehension was from Program A: *"Remind students that expression, or reading with feeling and emotion, makes text easier to comprehend and enjoy."*

Teachers and publishers of CRPs need to be aware of several concerns in the area of instructional focus. Although all lessons labeled as fluency were linked to fluency, a small number of them were mislabeled. For example, Program C labeled this lesson as rate: *"Discuss how text is divided into sections, separated by headings, that discuss different aspects of schools all over the world. Explain that by reading the headings, the reader can anticipate what information is coming."* This lesson is actually focusing on the use of physical text features to

help the reader make sense of the text organization and should have been labeled comprehension. Secondly, teachers need to be aware that occasionally the directions for instruction included in several lessons labeled as fluency are unclear. For example, the contents in a fluency lesson labeled Phonics and Fluency in Program A was limited to the following: *"/s/ spelled ce and ci_: voice, certain, place, city; /j/ spelled ge and gi_: managed."* One can assume that the intent of the lesson is to suggest that the teacher focus the students' attention on specific spellings to aid accurate reading; however, the directions do not indicate so.

Another interesting finding regarded the ratio of codings between the four characteristics. Surprisingly, more codings were recorded for expression than any of the other three characteristics, even in second grade. One possible explanation that codings for expression exceeded those of accuracy might be attributed to the selection process of lessons. Only those components labeled FLUENCY were included in the sample. Two programs (A and D) suggested that teachers develop automaticity of word recognition of words practiced during word study and labeled such lessons as fluency and or automaticity. The other three programs may have included similar word recognition practice during word study; however, these were not labeled as fluency and or automaticity and were not included in the sample.

This finding of greater emphasis on expression may conflict with several fluency theories. Three theories emphasize the need for students to first develop rapid and accurate word recognition. LaBerge and Samuels' (1974) theory of automatic information processing in reading and Stanovich's (1980) interactive-compensatory model both strongly suggest the need to build automaticity before working on more complex processes. Furthermore, Stanovich also suggested that nonautomatic readers rely on other sources such as context to make meaning of what is being read. Similar to this model, Perfetti's (1985) "verbal efficiency theory" also suggested that word recognition needs to be in place before students can perform higher level skills and that poor readers will use higher level skills to compensate for lower level skills which they lack (Rasinski

et al., 2011).

This does not suggest that fluency instruction that focuses on expression and comprehension should be postponed until students are completely automatic in their reading. Two theories support fluency instruction that includes an emphasis on expression. Posner and Snyder's (1975) theory of expectancy purported that the initiation of a higher level process does not require completion of all lower ones. In that automaticity consists of both rate and accuracy, young readers might benefit from both being taught in tandem. Schrieber (1980) suggested that that some reading fluency difficulties may be linked to the absence of prosodic markings. Without these markings, students may have difficulty transferring features of spoken language to written language. Rasinski and colleagues (2011) suggested that repeated reading may improve not only students' word recognition abilities but text comprehension as well. The research is not clear that this is best practice for all second and third grade students, especially for students who are already fluent. However, teachers who work with numbers of students who read below expected reading rate norms need to determine if a greater emphasis on expression over automaticity is a benefit or hindrance to fluency development.

Two programs (Program A in both grades, and Program E in grade 2) included regular word automaticity practice using word lists. During the Reading First initiative, the schools in the state in which this study was conducted, were provided and expected to use "lesson maps." These lesson maps were developed by the Reading First Technical Assistance Center for the purpose of intensifying each lesson of previously published CRPs that were used at the time. One of the main components of the lesson maps were word lists in which students practiced automaticity of words that would be encountered in the student anthology and decodable books. These lessons consisted of lists of words with common spelling patterns and high frequency words that the students would later encounter in the decodable readers; however, it was never indicated in the lessons to explicitly inform students that a main reason for practicing the words was to build

automaticity of words the students would encounter in soon-to-be read text. Research supports having students practice words that they will encounter in text. Two recent studies by Vadasy and colleagues (2005, 2006) reported that students who read text with a high percentage of words that matched previous word study showed significant gains in reading. However, repeated readings of word lists need to be used with caution. Findings from another recent study by LeVasseur and colleagues (2008) indicated that repeated readings with connected text resulted in greater gains in fluency than repeated readings of word lists.

Instructional Delivery

In addition to providing a definition of fluency, the NRP (NICHD, 2000) also reported findings on two approaches for fluency instruction: (a) guided repeated oral reading practice and (b) independent or recreational reading. First, the findings indicated that guided repeated oral reading procedures were moderately effective in developing oral reading fluency in young children. These procedures include: FORI (Stahl et al., 1997), FDL (Rasinski et al., 1994), ORL (Hoffman, 1987; Reutzel & Hollingsworth, 1993); and NIM (Flood et al., 2005). These procedures were not specifically suggested in CRPs examined; however, these procedures share common elements of explicit instruction including teacher modeling fluent reading of the text, guided reading of the text with the teacher or a peer, and multiple readings of text.

Two recent content analyses of previously published CRPs that included limited findings for reading fluency, reported that the explicitness of instruction suggested in reading programs has improved since Durkin's 1981 study (Dewitz et al., 2009; McGill-Franzen et al., 2006). The researchers indicated that when skills were mentioned, the teachers' editions tended to give some explanation of the skill's value or its procedure; however, the CRPs still stopped short of direct explanation. According to the recent study conducted by McGill-Franzen and colleagues, programs did not state whether the anthology was to be read aloud to students; read orally,

chorally, or in pairs by students; or read independently or silently by students.

So, how does instruction in the current CRPs compare to evidence-based practices in the area of instructional delivery? Based on Pearson and Gallagher's (1983) model of gradual release of responsibility, each lesson was coded for (a) explanation of skill, including declarative, procedural, and conditional knowledge; (b) teacher modeling, with or without a script for a think aloud; (c) guided practice with feedback; and (d) independent practice. Seventeen percent of lessons were coded as not including any element of explicit instruction. These lessons that did not include elements of explicit instruction consisted mainly of suggestions that students were to practice automatic recognition of words in lists and non-related sentences. The good news for teachers who might use these most recently published CRPs is that 40% (145) of the lessons included some type of an explanation, a form of modeling, and/or guided practice with feedback from a teacher or peer. Many of these lessons were similar to this one from Program B that started with an explanation:

> *Remind students that when they read aloud, they should use expression to show characters' thoughts and feelings and to interpret the event. Tell them that when they read they should think about what is happening in the story. Is the mood happy? Sad? Exciting? Scary? Notice when characters are speaking and think about how they are feeling.*
>
> Next, the teacher is instructed to model the skill:
>
> *Think aloud: I am going to read part of the story aloud. I am going to change the tone and expression in my voice when different characters speak and to show how they are feeling. I am also going to pay attention to the mood of the story and change my expression to show the mood.*
>
> The teacher provides guided practice, in this case, echo-reading:
>
> *Echo read and model a page. Then reread it, having students echo-read. When you have finished, ask students to read each sentence aloud, guiding them to include the appropriate expression in their voices.*

Interestingly, Day 3 of the programs seemed to be the day when programs provided the most explicit instruction. It might be assumed that the reason that fluency is relegated to the third

day is that other components of reading such as phonics or comprehension receive more attention during the first two days of the weekly lesson cycle.

Explanation and Modeling

FORI, FDL, and ORL suggest that the teacher model fluency by reading aloud the text while students track the print followed with a discussion of the text. Though several lessons included isolated elements of explicit instruction, less than one-fifth of lessons included an explanation (declarative knowledge, procedural, conditional knowledge) and/or modeling. Many of these, as seen in the previous example, provided adequate direction for teachers. Two programs (D and E) also included phrased parsed text or "chunking" as part of the modeling process in which slashes are used to indicate natural phrasing boundaries as seen in this example from Program E.

> *Explain that the punctuation in a text helps readers know when to pause or stop. Display transparency and explain that the single slashes show pauses and the double slashes show stops. Model reading aloud the section on the transparency.*

On occasion programs also included the use of nonexamples as part of modeling as demonstrated in a lesson from Program D.

> *Explain that when good readers read they read at a speed that is just right. Read some sentences too slowly and read some too quickly. Ask children to tell why neither displays fluent reading. Read each of the sentences together with children monitoring their reading rate. Then read the remainder of the story aloud.*

The guided oral repeated reading methods, FORI, FDL, and ORL, also suggested that the teacher discuss the contents of the text as part of the modeling process. Four percent of the codings reported a focus on comprehension and only a portion of these actually suggested that the teacher discuss the text; however, one might assume that the CRPs suggested that the text selections be discussed during comprehension instruction.

Educators who use these new programs need to be aware of several concerns regarding

recommendations made by programs in the areas of explanation and modeling. Similar to Durkin's (1981) finding of brevity of instruction, such was the case for several of the lessons in these programs as well. The directions for fluency instruction for several lessons in Program C were limited to: *"Read and discuss the fluency instructions. Then have students read several sentences 3 or 4 times."* Prior to a read-aloud in Program E, the teacher is instructed to: *"Ask students to listen carefully as you read aloud. Tell students to listen to your phrasing, expression, and tone of voice."* There were no codings that directed the teacher to follow up with this instruction at the conclusion of the read aloud. Though these are certainly appropriate practices for fluency instruction, these examples demonstrate the limited level of directions for fluency instruction for one day afforded teachers. As a side note, it was interesting that a few lessons included read alouds in which the students did not see the text as it was being read to them. The manual instructed the teacher to draw students' attention to features of the text such as this example from Program A: *"As you read, model fluent reading by pausing briefly after commas and periods. Tell students to notice that you do not pause at the end of a line without punctuation."* It is unclear why the teachers' editions would make such suggestions when students are not able to see the print and see the connection of how the text was read.

Even though many of the lessons suggested modeling of skills, a major concern from the findings was the lack of think-alouds included in the lessons. Both Programs A and D reported no lessons that were coded for incorporating think alouds and only 4% of lessons suggested or provided scripts for teachers to actually think out loud and model cognitive processes of reading fluently in Programs B, C, and E. Also of concern is the rarity of lessons that provided the why and the when (conditional knowledge) for using a particular fluency skill. This is unfortunate for students who are nonfluent readers who might benefit from highly scaffolded instruction.

Recently, Reutzel (2006) developed an instructional framework that provides a high level of scaffolded fluency instruction to help students develop fluency. Teachers might find this model

of fluency instruction beneficial as they scrutinize lessons included in the CRPs. The Fluency Development Workshop (FDW) incorporates many aspects of high-quality comprehension instruction including explicit and systematic instruction, teacher modeling including the use of teacher think-alouds, and guided oral repeated reading of appropriately challenging and varied texts. Unique to this framework is providing students the metalanguage of fluency. Coined by Reutzel as "metafluency," students' awareness of the multiple facets of fluency provides students with the strategies to monitor their fluency and to "fix-up" ineffective or inefficient fluency behaviors (p. 70).

Guided Reading Procedures

Another important element of guided oral repeated reading procedures which also aligns with the component of the gradual release of responsibility model is providing opportunities for students to practice the skill with the teacher and receive corrective feedback. Many recommendations for teacher guided practice seemed adequate as in this example in Program C

> *Follow along as I read these pages. I will try to read with an appropriate rate. I want to read just the way I speak.*
>
> Guided practice*:*
>
> *Have children read the pages with you. Then have them reread the pages as a group without you until they read with no hesitation and no mistakes.*
>
> Corrective feedback:
>
> *Is there a lot of dialogue? How would a person in real life say these words? Try to read as if you are speaking."*
>
> Choral reading: *Model as students track. Have children read along with you.*
>
> Monitor and provide feedback. Check comprehension:
>
> *Have children describe what happened to the robot. Ask them why they think the author wrote this story.*
>
> Lessons such as this do provide teachers with detailed recommendation for guided

practice. The problem is that only a fourth of the lessons included guided practice and even less suggested that student performance be monitored and feedback provided to students.

The level of scaffolded instruction was reflected in the type of reading suggested by the program. Hoffman and colleagues (1994) reviewed the instructional components of five first grade programs and reported that the programs advised that the teacher first read the story aloud, then the teacher and students should read the story together, followed by students reading the text multiple times. Hoffman also reported that the use of "round-robin reading" in which individual students orally read unrehearsed passages of text prevailed in the reviewed programs (Hoffman, 1987; Hoffman & Segel, 1983). The good news is that the practice of round robin reading was never suggested by any of the five programs!

In her 1981 study, Durkin indicated that five CRPs she reviewed suggested that the selections in the students' readers be read silently first, followed by oral reading of the text. Twelve of 16 lessons (Program A) coded as silent reading followed the same format as described in Durkin's study in which the students first read the text silently followed with oral reading of the same text. This practice does not seem to align with the gradual release of responsibility model in that students are reading text on their own prior to reading the text with the teacher. However, in defense of these lessons, the silent reading occurred as a component of guided practice, rather than when students were left to read independently on their own.

The mode of reading recommended by programs varied. Partner reading was more prevalent than choral or echo reading. In fact, the percentages of students reading with the teacher, (choral reading and echo reading) were almost half those of students reading with a peer. This is not to say that partner reading is poor instruction. Stahl and colleagues (2005) in a recent follow-up study of FORI, reported the purposes for partner reading were twofold. First, it provided an alternative to round robin reading for reading practice; and second, it also provided opportunities for teachers to listen to and monitor students' oral reading. However, Therrien's

(2004) meta-analysis indicated that fluency and comprehension effect sizes for students in interventions conducted by adults were more than three times larger than those conducted by peers. A problem with partnering students for fluency practice is that the fluency abilities of one or both partners may not be sufficient to provide adequate modeling of the skill or appropriate corrective feedback. The findings of a study by Meisinger, Schwanenflugel, Bradley, and Stahl (2004) suggested pairing a fluent reader with a less fluent reader as recommended in five lessons in Program C. However, the findings of this same study report the benefits of allowing students to select partners. It seems that when students are allowed to choose their partners, social cooperation was better than in partnerships in which student pairs were determined by the teacher (Rasinski et al., 2011, p. 105). The study provides another possible way to strengthen the effectiveness of partner reading which is to explicitly teach partner reading routines as seen in this example from Program B.

> *Explain that good readers take time to make sure that they read words correctly. Tell students that they should practice reading aloud on their own, stopping as necessary to correct them. Ask students to open books. Model work with a partner. Read aloud to a volunteer, deliberately mispronouncing one or two words. Invite volunteers to raise a hand to stop you when they hear a word that has been mispronounced. Then have the volunteer correct the pronunciation of that word before you read on.*

Unfortunately, these lessons that taught aspects of partner reading routines were isolated cases. Interestingly, as well, related to this topic is that in no program were teachers directed to pair students with another adult. It cannot be assumed that all schools have additional adults to assist in classrooms; however, many schools do have access to community volunteers. Many schools also allocate resources to hire paraprofessionals. Teachers who have access to the assistance of volunteers and paraprofessionals might consider partnering adults with less fluent readers to provide guided practice and corrective feedback. CRPs might consider recommending these practices to teachers in future editions of programs.

Studies suggest that alternate methods of guidance and feedback that provide

opportunities for students to rehearse and perform text positively impact student outcomes (Hiebert, 2005; NICHD, 2000). The findings from two recent studies (Corcoran & Davis, 2005; Keehn, 2003) supported the use of Readers' Theatre as a means to improve students' reading rates. Surprisingly, only one program (Program B) suggested its use. However, a fourth of the lessons for that program incorporated readers' theatre. One might ask if this is too much of a good thing. Another method similar to readers' theatre is radio reading in which students rehearse and perform expository text as if the reader were a radio or TV announcer. Each week, programs included a paired selection with the main selection that varied in genre and type but was related in topic; therefore, students encountered expository text on an almost weekly basis. No lessons in any of the programs suggested the use of radio reading or other forms of performance reading of expository text. Though the research is somewhat limited for both practices, they are methods that teachers and developers of future publications of CRPs might consider for fluency instruction.

A second method includes the use of audio and other technical devices. One such method identified was that of tape-assisted reading in which students read along with a tape-recorded version of the text multiple times. Only 2% of the lessons referred to this method of fluency practice. However, it must be noted that this percentage may be low due to the fact that most technical and online materials made available to teachers were listed in the ancillary materials which were not coded for this particular study.

Repeated Reading

The NRP (NICHD, 2000) also supported the use of repeated reading procedures. Just over half (51%) of lessons in the CRPs investigated in this study that included guided practice recommended the use of repeated reading with guidance and feedback. Twenty-eight percent of the lessons combined explicit instruction including guided practice (choral reading, echo reading, partner reading) with repeated readings of the text.

The findings from a more recent meta-analysis by Therrien (2004) suggested that text read three to four times seemed to have the greatest positive effect on students' gains in reading fluency. Based on the pattern of text use during a weekly plan, most lessons suggested that a text be read one to four times each day over the course of 1 or 2 days. This would put the number of repetitions of text reading at or near the recommended three to four repetitions. However, there were numerous lessons that suggested that a text be read four or more times within a lesson, for as many as four days. This could put the number of repetitions of text reading well over the recommended three or four. If the benefits of reading texts are not demonstrated after three or four repetitions, does it make sense for student to read it more times, especially for students who already fluently read and comprehend text at or above grade level?

Rather than all these repetitions of text reading, it seems that students might spend the time reading a variety of other texts with fewer repetitions. Findings from two recent studies indicate that wide reading in which students read a wider range of text a single time positively affects student reading outcomes when accompanied with instruction, teacher guidance, and corrective feedback (Kuhn, 2005; Kuhn et al., 2006; O'Connor et al., 2007). No significant differences were reported between the practices of repeated reading and wide reading. A recent study (Reutzel et al., 2008) that compared Scaffolded Silent Reading (ScSR) to guided oral repeated reading extended this understanding even further. Reutzel and his colleagues reported that guided silent nonrepetitive reading improved third grade students' reading fluency and comprehension growth just as effectively as guided repeated oral reading. None of the core programs reviewed for this dissertation included the practice of wide reading either orally or silently. This should be no surprise in that these studies are fairly recent and it generally takes publishers 3 to 5 years to create a new program (Dewitz, Leahy, Jones, & Sullivan, 2010). However, teachers and publishers need to be aware of the similar effectiveness of these two methods compared to those of guided repeated reading procedures when planning and developing

independent reading activities.

Independent Reading

In addition to its findings on guided oral reading procedures, the NRP (NICHD, 2000) also reported on a second major approach which included those formal efforts to increase the amount of independent or recreational reading that children engage in, including sustained silent reading programs. The Panel was unable to find a positive relationship between curricula that encouraged large amounts of independent reading and improvements in reading achievement, including fluency. This was due to that fact that rigorous research designed to assess the specific influences that independent silent reading practices have on reading fluency…has not been conducted" (p. 13). This is "…what many have come to characterize as a knee-jerk suppression of silent reading practice in school classrooms across the United States" (Hiebert & Reutzel, 2010, p. xi).

This sway away from independent and silent reading is reflected in the current CRPs. Only a tenth of the lessons coded suggested the use of independent oral reading, and when this occurred, it was mostly a repetition of previously read text. No lessons recommend that students read multiple texts one time. Silent reading was recommended even less than independent oral reading. In fact, virtually no lessons recommended that students engage in silent reading in four of the five programs. Pikulski and Chard's (2005) definition of fluency suggests that silent reading comprehension is the end goal of fluent reading. Furthermore, independent and silent reading is the "Principal way in which most accomplished adolescent and adult readers read" (Hiebert & Reutzel, 2010, p. xi). It might be assumed that this lack of lessons that suggest the use of independent reading is due to the CRPs' writers' interpretation of the NRP's failure to find sufficient evidence to recommend the practice of silent (independent) reading (Hiebert & Reutzel, 2010; Reutzel et al., 2008). Recently, Allington and McGill-Franzen (2010) expressed

great concerns about the emphasis on oral reading proficiency and the lack of silent reading instruction, even in the primary grades. They suggest that teachers incorporate a "better blend of oral and silent practices" (p. 47).

Delimitations and Limitations of the Study

There were several limitations and delimitations to this study. A major limitation is that only the current five top-selling CRPs were selected to be reviewed. One might assume that there are a number of reading programs from which schools and teachers may choose. However, it did not seem feasible to identify, obtain, and analyze every CRP that is available for use by teachers to instruct reading. Thus, the findings of this study cannot be generalized to include ALL CRPs.

There were two major delimitations to the study over which the investigator had control: (a) the study did not include all fluency instruction in the CRPs; and (b) the findings of the study were based on frequencies of specified elements of instruction.

Four factors contribute to the first delimitation that not all fluency instruction contained in the CRPs was included in the study. First, only 20% of the lessons were selected for coding. Due to the random sampling method, the investigator had little control over which lessons would be included in the sample. It is hoped that the size of the sample included a sufficient number of lessons to provide an adequate and fair description of fluency instruction in the programs. Secondly, only lessons labeled as reading fluency were coded. Any word practice or text reading such as those contained in such sections as phonics or comprehension were not coded unless the lesson was specifically intended for and/or labeled as fluency. Thirdly, lessons were limited to those found only in second and third grade CRP teachers' editions. The study did not include lessons that were in kindergarten and grade 1 or in grades 4 and above. Thus, the study did not report on fluency lessons designed for students in the early stages of reading development or for those students in the intermediate grades who might already be considered fluent readers. Lastly,

this study included only those lessons intended for the general student population. Instruction designated for small group, differentiated instruction (on-, below-, or advanced-level), students identified as English language learners, or students with special needs were not included. Ancillary materials, such as facsimiles of workbooks or worksheets, assessments, teacher resource books, or materials available on-line were excluded as well. Therefore, the findings of this study are not based on all potential materials that CRPs provide for teachers to instruct reading fluency.

The second delimitation of the study relates to the method of coding instruction. The coding form was developed by the investigator and used to document whether or not lessons contained specified elements of fluency instruction. The codes were then totaled and frequencies reported. Even though these data provided valuable information, this type of coding may not capture subtle nuances of the quality of instruction. Furthermore, a different investigator seeking to answer the same two questions of this study might select other categories and methods for collecting data. Thus, the findings may be limited and are based on the coding guidelines developed by the investigator.

Summary

This content analysis closely examined fluency instruction in the most recently published five top-selling CRPs, and as such, the findings of this study should be of interest to teachers, school administrators, stakeholders, and policy makers who use these programs to plan and provide fluency instruction in classrooms. This is particularly important for educators who work with second-grade students, the grade at which most students typically make the greatest gains in reading rates (Hasbrouck &Tindal, 2006; Hiebert, 2005; Torgesen, 2004).

Current CRPs have made considerable progress in the area of fluency instruction. What was “rarely” taught in previous editions, the most current teachers’ manuals include fluency

lessons 4 or 5 days a week in second grade, and 3 to 5 days a week in third grade. The findings did not report a ratio of fluency instruction compared to that of other essential components of reading and writing instruction found in current CRP teachers' manuals. Nor did the findings assert whether or not the number of fluency lessons per week is sufficient or adequate for most students' fluency development; however, the trend from previous CRP teachers' manuals showed substantial improvement.

One strength of the new CRPs was the alignment of the instructional focus with the accepted definitional components of reading fluency. Although the fluency lesson focus was not always explicitly named in each lesson, the stated instruction for each lesson could be linked to aspects of fluent reading (i.e., rate, accuracy, expression, and/or comprehension). Even lessons that were coded as comprehension were not always teaching comprehension strategies per say. Instead they were often focused on how automaticity and prosody facilitate understanding of text and vice versa. The fact that more lessons focused on expression than accuracy and rate in second grade raised several questions. Could an increased focus on expression hinder the development of automaticity in less fluent readers? On the other hand, should accurate readers with appropriate reading rates in grade 2 not be exposed to the importance of expression? These questions exemplify some of the types of problems of the one-size-fits-all curriculum outlined in many CRPs (Allington & McGill-Franzen, 2010).

Another area of marked progress in the new CRPs is way the programs scaffold fluency instruction. The fact that three fourths of lessons included at least some elements of explicit instruction; and almost half included explanation, modeling, and guidance; and a third combined guided practice with repeated reading indicates improvements from findings of 30 years ago when fluency skills were only "mentioned." Although these improvements may be reason to celebrate, several concerns remain. The infrequent use of instructional scaffolding such as think-alouds, and echo reading over other forms of practice such as partner reading raises questions

such as: Are current levels of instructional scaffolding provided in CRP fluency lessons adequate to facilitate fluency development for most second and third grade students who are less fluent? On the other hand, might these same levels of instructional scaffolding provided in CRP fluency lessons sufficient or even excessive for students who are making adequate progress? Obviously more research is needed to answer these questions.

Conclusions

The intent of the first question of this study was to describe fluency instruction in current CRPs. Second and third-grade teachers who use current CRPs can expect to find a fluency curriculum that is improved over previous programs. Weekly lessons focus on the attributes of fluent reading, namely rate, accuracy, expression and/or comprehension. Many lessons incorporate elements of explicit reading instruction, including teacher explanation and modeling, and guided practice with feedback from the teacher and/or peer. These programs provide opportunities for students to repeatedly read text from the student anthology, decodable books, and projectable texts (transparencies).

The purpose of the second question of this study was to compare the instructional practices and methods prescribed by current CRPs with evidence-based fluency instruction with feedback, and repeated reading of texts. Based on the findings of this study, it can be assumed that the instruction outlined in the reviewed CRPs is fairly aligned with the findings of the NRP (NICHD, 2000). The report characterized fluent reading as being able to read with appropriate rate, accuracy, and expressions. The vast majority of lessons focused on these three areas. The NRP (NICHD, 2000) also concluded that instruction incorporating guided repeated reading of text with feedback was effective in promoting fluency development in students. Half of the lessons coded in this study incorporated elements of guided oral repeated reading, including teacher modeling, guided practice with feedback, and repeated reading of texts. As also with the

NRP, which did not recommend nor discourage independent/silent reading, the CRPs rarely recommended that students read independently, either orally or silently.

Second and third grade teachers need to remember, however, that the findings of the NRP were published over 10 years ago and more recent studies report findings that extend previous understandings of effective practices for developing fluency in young readers. Studies that compared the effects of wide reading of text to those of repeated reading, when accompanied with guided instruction and practice, reported no significant differences in student reading outcomes. Finally, if students are ultimately expected to read text independently and silently as well as understand its meaning, teachers and publishers need to address the lack of instruction and recommended guided practice in current CRPs that is designed to facilitate this mode of reading.

Suggestions for Future Research

Several times during the discussion of the findings, the investigator raised concerns as to whether or not the fluency instruction met the needs of both struggling and striving readers. According to the section on delimitations and limitations, the study did not examine differentiated instruction intended for either below- or above-level readers. Nor did the study examine instruction for English Language Learners. Further research needs to extend the findings of this study and examine how current CRPs differentiate fluency instructions for students in grades two and three who read above or below expected reading norms as well as instruction designed for students whose first language is not English.

In addition, two question arise that would also extend the findings of this study concerning fluency instruction in contemporary CRPs. The first one: To what extent do teachers implement the instructional methods, procedures, and materials recommended and provided by the CRPs? Even programs that align highly with validated research are only as effective as the level to which implementation occurs. The use of classroom observations, surveys, and

interviews of students and teachers would provide pertinent information regarding the degree of program implementation. The second and more important question: When implemented with fidelity, what impact does the instruction recommended in CRPs have on students' fluency development and overall reading achievement? As with the first question, even the most highly aligned curriculum and instruction is inconsequential if student outcomes are not positively impacted. Answers to this question need to also include the impact that the instruction has on various student subgroups, particularly those students who come from homes of poverty, students whose first language is other than English, and students with special needs.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A

Frequency Table for Post-NRP Studies

Table A-1

Frequency Table for Post-NRP Studies

	RESULTS	FREQUENCY	PERCENTAGE
1.	Location of Studies (n = 18)		
	a. Northeast U. S.[3,10]	2	11%
	b. Northwest U.S.[16]	1	6%
	c. Southeast U.S.[7]	1	6%
	d. Midwest U.S.[11,18]	2	11%
	e. New England[15]	1	6%
	f. Connecticut[9]	1	6%
	g. Florida[2]	1	6%
	h. Georgia[8,15]	2	11%
	i. Mississippi[12]	1	6%
	j. New Jersey[8]	1	6%
	k. Rhode Island[9]	1	6%
	k. Central Texas[6]	1	6%
	m. Southern California[4,5]	2	11%
	n. Not Indicated[1,13,14,17]	4	22%
2.	Community (n = 18)		
	a. Urban[5,8,10,11,16]	5	28%
	b. Suburban[3,4,8,9,18]	5	28%
	c. Rural[1,6,9,12]	4	22%
	d. Not Indicated[2,7,13,14,15,17]	6	33%
3.	Number of Schools in Studies (n = 18)		
	a. 1[2,3,6,7,10,11,12,13,18]	9	50%
	b. 2-3[5,9,14,15]	4	22%
	c. 5-12[4,8,17]	3	17%
	d. Not Indicated[1]	1	6%
4.	Grade Levels Represented in Studies (n = 18)		
	a. Grade 2[3,6,7,8,9,12,15,16]	8	44%
	b. Grade 3[1,14,18]	3	17%
	c. Grades 2 and 3[2,10,11,17]	4	22%
	d. Grades 2 and 4[13]	1	6%
	e. Grades 3-6[4,5]	2	11%

(*table continues*)

	RESULTS	FREQUENCY	PERCENTAGE
5.	Number of Classrooms included in each Study (n = 18)		
	a. 1 [2,12,18]	3	17%
	b. 2-5 [3,6,7,14,16]	5	28%
	c. 6-10 [4,13]	2	11%
	d. 20-30 [8,15,17]	3	17%
	e. Not Indicated [1,5,9,10,11]	5	28%
6.	Treatment Setting (n = 18)		
	a. Classroom [6,8,12,14,15]	5	28%
	b. Non-classroom [1,3,4,9,10,11]	6	33%
	c. Hallway [11,18]	2	11%
	d. NI [2.5,7,13,16,17]	6	33%
7.	Socioeconomic Status of School/Participants (n = 18)		
	a. 100% Free/Reduced (F/R) Lunch [5,10,18]	3	17%
	b. 75%-99% F/R Lunch [3,8,11]	3	17%
	c. 50%-74% F/R Lunch [6,7,14]	3	17%
	d. 5%-49% F/R Lunch [8,15]	2	11%
	e. Not Indicated [1,2,4. ,9,12,13,16,17]	8	44%
8.	Ethnicity (n = 18)		
	a. 100% Minority [5,10,11]	3	17%
	b. 75% -99% Minority [5,7,8,15,18]	5	28%
	c. 50%-74% Minority [6,13,15,17]	4	22%
	d. 12-49% Minority [2,3,4,14,16,17]	6	33%
	e. 0% Minority [1,12]	2	11%
	f. Not Indicated [9]	1	6%
9.	Study Design (n = 18)		
	a. Group Experimental [7,8,10,13,16,17]	6	33%
	b. Single Subject [1,3,11,12,18]	5	28%
	c. Methods Comparison [9,14]	2	11%
	d. Immediate Effect [2,4,5,15]	5	28%
10.	Description of Treatment/Control (n = 18)		
	a. Repeated Reading (RR) [1,3,6,7,8,9,10,11,12,13,14,15,16,17,18]	15	83%

(*table continues*)

	RESULTS	FREQUENCY	PERCENTAGE
	b. Wide Reading (WR) [7,8,13,14]	4	22%
	c. Phrase Drill/Isolated Words/Word List[1,9,16,17]	4	22%
	d. Feedback/Error Correction [3,10,12]	3	17%
	e. Independent Reading[14,18]	2	11%
	f. Neurological Impress Method[4,5]	2	11%
	g. Readers' Theatre[2,6]	2	11%
	Listen only [7]	1	6%
11.	Number of Participants in Studies(n = 18) (*M*=56.8; *SD*=83.1)		
	a. 1[1]	1	6%
	b. 2-10[3,11,12,18]	4	22%
	c. 11-30 [2,4,5,7,10,17]	6	33%
	d. 31-72 [6,9,13,14,16]	5	28%
	e. 209-349 [8,15]	2	11%
12.	Age of Participants (n = 18)		
	a. 8-9 [1,3,8,10,12,18]	6	33%
	b. Not Indicated[2,4,5,6,7,9,11,13,14,15,16,17]	12	67%
13.	Participants' Reading Ability Level (n = 18)		
	a. Below Grade Level[3,4,5,7,11,12,13,16,17]	9	50%
	b. Multiple Levels [14,15,18]	3	17%
	c. Not Indicated[1,3,6,8,9,10]	6	33%
14.	Exceptionality (n = 18)		
	a. Learning Disabled[1,2,12,13]	4	22%
	b. Not Indicated [3,4,5,6,7,8,9,10,11,14,15,16,17,18]	14	78%
15.	Sample Selection Criteria (n = 18)		
	a. Disfluent/struggling reader[3,7,12,11,18]	5	28%
	b. Below grade level on CBM or State Assessment[4,5,10,13]	4	22%
	c. Below 37%ile on Standardized Assessment[13,16,17]	3	17%
	d. Not Indicated [1,2,6,8,14,15]	6	33%
16.	Assignment to Groups (n = 18)		
	a. Random Assigned School [16]	1	6%
	b. Random Assigned Class[3,6,7,8,17]	5	28%

(*table continues*)

	RESULTS	FREQUENCY	PERCENTAGE
	c. Random Assigned Student [2,4,5,10,13,14] Stratified Random (Reading Ability)[2,14] Matched Pairs[10]	6	33%
	d. NI[1,9,11,12,15,18]	6	33%
17.	Number of Participants in Groups (n = 18)		
	a. 1 [1,4,5,11,12,16,17]	7	39%
	b. Small Group3-8[3,7,9,10,18]	5	28%
	c. Whole Class[2,6,8,13,14,15]	6	33%
18.	Treatment Provider (n = 18)		
	a. Experimenter [1,3,7,9,10,18]	6	33%
	b. Teacher[2,6,8,11,14,15]	6	33%
	c. Student Teacher[4,12]	2	11%
	d. Trained Adult (Non-Educator)[5,13,16,17]	4	22%
19.	Student/Teacher Ratio (n = 18)		
	a. 1:1 [1,4,5,10,11,12,13,16]	8	44%
	b. 2-4:1[2,9]	2	11%
	c. Not Indicated[3,6,7,8,14,15,17,18]	8	44%
20.	Session Length (n = 18)		
	a. 5-20 Minutes[3,4,5,7,9,11,12,13,18]	9	50%
	b. 25-40Minutes [6,8,10,14,16,17]	6	33%
	c. Not Indicated [1,2,15]	3	17%
21.	Duration of treatment (n = 18)		
	a. 1-12 Weeks [2,3,4,5,6,9,10,11,12]	9	50%
	b. 12-18 Weeks [13,16]	2	11%
	c. School Year [8,14,17]	3	17%
	d. Not Indicated[1,15,18]	3	17%
22.	Procedure Fidelity (n = 18)		
	a. 95-100% [3,12,14,16,17,18]	6	33%
	b. 90-94% [8]	1	6%
	c. Deemed “high”[13]	1	6%
	d. Not Indicated[1,2,4,5,6. 7.9.10,15]	9	50%
23.	Texts used in Treatment (n = 18)		
	a. Grade level [1,3,7,8,11,14,16,17]	8	44%
	b. Independent Level[4,5,14]	3	17%
	c. Instructional Level[2,6,7,10,12,13]	6	33%
	d. Frustrational Level[4,5,15]	3	17%

(*table continues*)

		RESULTS	FREQUENCY	PERCENTAGE
	e.	Decodable/Targeted words (matched instruction) [11,16,17]	3	17%
	f.	Expository [8,17]	2	11%
	g.	Narrative [8,9,18]	3	17%
	i.	Cued Text[9]	1	6%
24.	Overall Findings (n = 18)			
	a.	RR improves ORF [1,2,6,7,8,9,10,11,12,13,14,15,16,17,18]	15	83%
	b	WR improves ORF [7,13]	2	11%
	c.	WR=RR [8,13,14]	3	17%
	d.	Phrase Drill=RR[1,9,10]	3	17%
	e.	Neurological Impress Method improves ORF[4,5]	2	11%
	f.	Readers' Theatre improves ORF[2,6]	2	11%
		Improved comprehension[4,5,6,7,13,14]	5	28%
	i.	Prosody improved [6,14]	2	11%
	k.	Feedback enhances ORF[3]	1	6%
	m.	Error Correction reduces error rate[12]	1	6%
		word practice interventions[1,9,16,17] (e.g.,phrase drill error correction).	4	22%
25.	Explicit Instruction Components			
		Model, Guided Practice, Feedback, Independent[2,4,5,6,7,8,9,10,14,15,16]	11	61
		Guided Practice and Feedback[11,17,18]	3	17
		Feedback[1,3,15]	3	17
		Not indicated[13]	1	6

Appendix B

Data Summary of Post-NRP Studies

Table B-1

Data Summary of Post NRP Studies

	Study	Study design	Results	Part (n = 960)	GR	Participants' reading levels	Texts used in treatments	Other
1	Begeny, J. C., Daly, E. J., & Valleley, R. J. (2006).	SINGLE SUBJECT Alternating Treatment	RR produced gains Phrase Drill produced gains	1 (>.01)	3	Grade 1 and 2 (Inst.) LD	Grade Level	
2	Corcoran, C. A., & Davis, A. D. (2005).	IMMEDIATE EFFECTS Pretest-Posttest	Readers' Theatre produced gains	12 (.01)	2-3	LD	Instructional level	
3	Eckert, T. L., Dunn, E. K., & Ardoin, S. P. (2006).	SINGLE SUBJECT Brief Experimental Analysis Multielement design. (Alternating Treatment)	Feedback produced gains	6 (.01)	2	Below GR 2 level (40 WCRPM)	Grade Level	
4	Flood, J., Llapp, D., & Fisher, D. (2005a).	IMMEDIATE EFFECTS Pretest-Posttest	NIM produced gains	20 (.02)	3-6	Below GR level on state achievement tests	Independent progress to frustrational level	Gains in comprehension and silent reading
5	Flood, J., Llapp, D., & Fisher, D. (2005b).	IMMEDIATE EFFECTS Pretest-Posttest	NIM produced gains	20 (.02)	3-6	Below GR level on state achievement tests	Independent progress to frustrational level	Gains in comprehension and silent reading
6	Keehn, S. (2003).	IMMEDIATE EFFECTS Pretest-Posttest	Readers' Theatre (RT) produced gains RT +Fluency Instruction=RT	66 (.07)	2	NI	Instructional	Gains in comprehension and prosody
7	Kuhn, M.R. (2005).	GROUP EXPERIMENT Quasi-experimental	RR>C and Listen Only WR>C and Listen Only	24 (.03)	2	Disfluent	Grade Level	Gains in comprehension for WR
8	Kuhn, M.R., Schwanenflugel, P.J., Morris, R.D., Morrow, L.M., Woo, D., Meisinger, B., et al. (2006).	GROUP EXPERIMENT Randomized experimental	FORI>C WR>C FORI=WR	349 (.36))	2	NI	GR level texts Content area	T1 and T2 -Gains in comprehension
9	LeVasseur, V. M., Macaruso, P., & Shankweiler, D. (2008).	METHODS COMPARISON Pretest-Posttest	Text RR>Word List RR Cued Text RR>Word List RR	36 (.04)	2	NI	Word lists Cued tests (spacing between phrases/sentences	Cued Text improved prosody

	Study	Study design	Results	Part (n = 960)	GR	Participants' reading levels	Texts used in treatments	Other
			Text RR=Cued Text RR				Standard text	
10	Martens, B. K., Eckert, T. L., Begeny, J. C., Lewandowski, L. J., DiGennaro, F. D., Montarello, S. A., Arbolino, L. A., Reed, D. D., & Fiese, B. H. (2007).	GROUP EXPERIMENT Randomized experimental Adapted changing criterion design	RR>C RR w/Feedback>C 100 WRCPM Criterion	30 (.03)	2-3	NI	Instructional	
11	McComas, J. J., Wagner, D., Chaffin, M. C., Holton, E., McDonnell, M., & Monn, E. (2009).	SINGLE SUBJECT Brief Experimental Analysis Multielement design. (Alternating Treatment)	RR produced gains	3 (>.01)	2-3	Below GR level on ORF	Grade level High overlap words Match instruction	
12	Nelson, J. S., Alber, S. R., & Gordy, A. (2004).	SINGLE SUBJECT Multiple-baseline	Error Correction RR>Error correction	4 (>.01)	2	2 years below GR level LD	Instructional	
13	O'Connor, R. A., White, A., & Swanson, H. L. (2007).	GROUP EXPERIMENT Randomized experimental	RR>C WR>C RR=WR	48 (.05)	2-4	Struggling readers LD	Instructional	Gains in comprehension and silent reading
14	Reutzel, D. R. Fawson, P. C., & Smith, J. A. (2008).	METHODS COMPARISON Pretest-Posttest w/ qualitative data	GROR=ScSR	72 (.08)	3	Varied	T1-Grade Level T2-Independent	T1=T2 in comprehension and prosody
15	Stahl, S. A., Heubach, K., & Cramond, B. (2005).	IMMEDIATE EFFECTS Pretest-Posttest	FORI produced gains	209 (.22)	2	Varied	Frustrational	
16	Vadasy, P. F., Sanders, E. A., & Peyton, J. A. (2006a).	GROUP EXPERIMENT Quasi-experimental	RR+Word Study>C	31 (.03)	2	At or below 37%ile	Grade level matched with taught word features	
17	Vadasy, P. F., Sanders, E. A., & Peyton, J. A. (2006b).	GROUP EXPERIMENT Randomized experimental	RR+Word Study>C	21 (.02)	2-3	At or below 37%ile	Grade level matched with taught word features	
18	Yurick, A. L., Robinson, P. D., Cartledge, G., Lo, Y., & Evans, T. L. (2006).	SINGLE SUBJECT Multiple baseline across participants	Paired RR > Silent Reading	8 (.01)	3	Half on grade level	Fiction	

Appendix C

Summary of CRP Studies

Table C-1

Summary of CRP Studies

Year	Study	Focus	Grade	# prog.
1977	Beck, I. L. (1977, May)	Comprehension	1st -3rd	1
1979	Beck, I. L., McKeown, M. G., McGaslin, E. S., & Burkes, A. M. (1979)	Comprehension	1st -6	2
1981	Durkin, D. (1981)	Comprehension	K-6th	5
1987	Flood, J. & Lapp, D. (1987)	Text Type/Genres	K-6th	6
1990	Durkin, D. (1990, December)	Comprehension	K-6th	NI
1990	Durkin, D. (1990, February)	Phonics	K-6th	NI
1990	Schmitt, M. C. & Hopkins, C. J. (1990, November)	Comprehension	2nd, 4th, 6th	8
1993	Hoffman, J. V., McCarthey, S. J., Abbott, J., Christian, C., Corman, L.,, Curry, C., Dressman, M., Elliott, B., Matherne, D., & Stahle, D. (1993)	Text Readability	1st	5
1993	Miller, S. D., & Blumenfeld, P. C. (1993)	Comprehension: Main idea & Cause/effect	1st -5th	2
1999	Stein, M., Johnson, B., & Gutlohn, L. (1999)	Phonics	1st	7
2001	Jitendra, A. K., Chard, D., Hoppes, M. K., Renouf, K., & Gardill, M. C. (2001)	Comprehension Text Readability	2nd, 4th, 6th	4
2001	Smith, S. B., Simmons, D. D., Gleason, M. M., Kame'enui, E. J., Baker, S. K., Sprick, M., Gunn, B., Thomas, C. L., Chard, D. J., Plasencia-Peinado, J., & Peinado, R. (2001)	Phonological Awareness	K	4
2002	Hoffman, J. V., Sailors, M., & Patterson, E. U. (2002)	Vocabulary Text Readability	1st	5
2002	Moss, B. & Newton, E. (2002)	Text Type	2nd, 4th, & 6th	6
2004	Foorman, B. R., Francis, D. J., Davidson, K. C., Harm, M. W., & Griffin, J. (2004)	Text Readability	1 st	6
2005	Hiebert, E. F., Martin, L. A., & Menon, S. (2005)	Text Type/Genres	1st	3
2005	Otaiba, S. A., Kosanovich-Grek, M. L., Torgesen, J. K., Hassler, L., & Wahl, M. (2005)	Comprehension Vocabulary Fluency Phonics/Spelling Phonological Awareness	K-1st	6
2006	McGill Franzen, A., Zmach, C., Solic, K., & Zeig, L. J. (2006)	Comprehension Vocabulary Fluency Phonics/Spelling Phonological Awareness Writing	3rd	2
2007	Maslin, P. (2007)	Phonics Text Readability	1st	5
2009	Dewitz, P., Jones, J., & Leahy, S. (2009)	Comprehension:	3rd- 5th	5

Appendix D

Codebook

CODEBOOK

Purpose

The purpose of this codebook is to outline the steps and to provide operational definitions needed to code fluency lessons in Grades 2 and 3 teachers' manuals of the core reading programs. The following will be included to describe how to: Locate fluency lessons, determine each instructional move, and code each instructional move.

I. Locate fluency lessons

Review the table of contents and/or an overview of the theme or week's lessons which identifies reading components and accompanying page numbers. Refer to those components named ***FLUENCY***. Verify that the pages listed actually provide teachers directions for teaching fluency.

Scan each page of each manual for fluency lessons as well as instruction included in the sidebars. To be coded, the lesson must be intended and labeled as ***fluency.*** Code only instruction intended for regular classroom instruction. Do NOT code the following:

1. Any segments intended for "special" populations of students including below-, on-, or advanced levels; English language learners (ELL); gifted students
2. Any references or facsimiles of literacy centers, worksheets, or workbooks
3. Activities or materials labeled or intended as assessments.

Lessons or parts of lessons that use text that is not connected text will excluded as well. These include letter-sound correspondence, decoding, and word list activities.

Use a separate coding form for each day/lesson. Complete the top portion of the form by indicating the program, grade level, theme/unit, lesson/day, and page number.

II. Determine instructional moves

An instructional move is defined as instructional moves as units, or segments, bounded by a shift or "change in the type of instruction or topic of instruction" within a lesson. This may also include a change in materials or the type of practice required of students. An instructional move might be contained in just one sentence, for example, "Have students reread pages 14-15 with partners." A sentence or short paragraph might contain two or more instructional moves: "After reading aloud stanzas 1 and 2 with appropriate expression while students following along in their own texts (*move 1*), have students practice reading the stanzas individually 3-4 times. (*Move 2. This is a different instructional move because the students first followed along in the text, then "moved" to reading the text individually*).

III. Coding

Each instructional move in the selected reading lessons will be coded in five areas. Use a separate line on the coding form for each instructional move.

1. **METHOD** (*Column 1*)
   Code any methods that are named specifically in the teachers' manuals. Moves that do not identify a specific method will be left blank. Use the following abbreviations and record in column 1.

CAT-Cross-age Tutoring
CB-Computer-based Reading
CTV- Closed-caption TV
FDL-Fluency Development Lesson
FORI-Fluency Oriented Reading Instruction
GRF-Guided Repeated Oral Reading with Feedback
NIM-Neurological Impress Method
ORL-Oral Recitation Lesson
PR- Paired Reading (Student reads with an adult)
APR-Assigned partner reading
BR-Buddy Reading (Includes small groups of students reading together)
RAV (RAVE-O)-Retrieval, Automaticity, Vocabulary, Engagement, and Orthography
RT- Readers' Theatre
SBE-Shared Book Experience
ScSR-Scaffolded Silent Reading
SSR-Silent Sustained Reading
TR- Taped Assisted Reading
WR-Wide Reading

2. **FOCUS** (*Columns 2-5*)
Code for content of instruction: rate, accuracy, expression, or comprehension.. An instructional move may focus on one, two, or all three foci.
Other terms may infer to a particular focus as well:

Rate: speed, words per minute, automaticity
Accuracy: words correct, number of errors, percent correct, automaticity
Expression: Intonation, stress, pitch, inflection, volume, pausing, attend to punctuation, natural sounding, appropriate voice
Comprehension: Comprehend, understand, make sense of, meaning

Any lesson component labeled as "fluency" with a content instructional goal other than rate, accuracy, or expression will be marked "other."

DECISION RULE
Any mismatch between the section label and content/methods of instruction should be coded to reflect the contents. For example, if the lesson is labeled automaticity but the teacher is instructed to use punctuation to aid phrasing, the focus should be coded as *Expression.* This same rule applies to other and all sections as well.

3. **INSTRUCTIONAL DELIVERY** (*Columns 6-17*)
Code each instructional move by what the teacher is directed to do. :
   a. Skill mentioned: The manual mentions a skill or the teacher tells students to perform the skill but does not provide further directions, models, explanations.
   b. Declarative Knowledge: The manual names the skill and provides a definition or explanation of that skill.
   c. Conditional Knowledge: The manual provides reasons why the skill or strategy is important and provides situations when skill or strategy might be used appropriately.
   d. Procedural knowledge: The manual describes the steps necessary to perform the

skill or strategy.

e. Direct explanation: The manual provides an explanation of skill and provides declarative, procedural, and conditional information.
f. Modeling: The teacher is instructed to model the skill but the manual does not provide the language for a think-aloud.
g. Modeling + think-aloud: The manual instructs the teacher to model and provides the language for a think-aloud.
h. Guided practice: The manual suggest practices that encourage the teacher and students to practice the skill together as the teacher provides scaffolded supports.
i. Monitor progress/Feedback from teacher: The manual instructs the teacher and/or peers to monitor student acquisition of skill and provides suggestions possible useful responses to students.
j. Monitor progress/Feedback from peer: The manual suggest opportunities for students to either provide or receive feedback to and from peers.
k. Independent Practice: The manual provides suggestions that foster individual practice.
l. Transfer: The manual provides suggestions that foster skill use in unfamiliar texts or situations.

4. **READING MODE** (*Columns 18-23*)

Code for the type or mode of reading (if any) that the manual requires of the students:

a. No reading-Students listening to text only
b. Listening to text being read while following text
c. Choral reading
d. Echo reading
e. Reading orally and independently (including performance)
f. Reading silently

5. **TEXT ENCOUNTERS** (*Columns 24-26*)

Repeated Reading: Code for the number of encounters that are suggested that students have with text:

a. Indicate the number of repetitions students read text during each instructional move. If manual does not specify the exact number of repetitions (e.g. several or many times), write 2^+ in the box.
b. Indicate the number of days across which students read the same text
c. Wide reading (Students read text one time)

ROUTINE CARDS

In the event that the manual directs the teacher to instruct according to a format outlined in a routine or instructional card, record those components as if they were included in the manual on the lines marked "Routine Card."

COMMENTS

Space is provided at the bottom of the form for comments with corresponding moves. Any questions, clarifications, explanations, or development of instructional patterns should be noted.

Appendix E

Coding Form

Lesson Coding Form

Publisher: Harcourt *StoryTown* □ Hougton Mifflin *Journeys* □ Macmillan/McGraw Hill *Treasures* □ Scott Foresman *Reading Street* □ SRA *Imagine It* □

Grade: 2nd □ 3rd □ **Theme/Unit:** _____ **Vol.** _____ **Lesson/Week:** _____ **Day:** ____ **Pg.:** ____ **Sample #:** _____

	1 Meth.	2 FOCUS					3 INSTRUCTIONAL DELIVERY												4 READING MODE							5 TEXT ENCOUNTERS		
INSTRUCTIONAL MOVE	Specific Method Named*	RATE	ACCURACY	EXPRESSION	READING WORDS IN ISOLATION	COMPREHENSION	Skill mentioned	Declarative knowledge	Conditional knowledge	Procedural knowledge	Modeling suggested w/no language	Modeling + language for think-aloud	Guided practice suggested w/no lang.	Guided practice + language	Monitor progress/ Feedback from teacher	Monitor progress/ Feedback from peer	Independent Practice	Transfer	No reading-Students listening to text only	Listening to text while following text	Choral reading	Echo Reading	Repeated reading	Reading orally and independently	Reading silently	Number of repetitions students read text	# Day same text read repeatedly	Wide reading (Read text 1 time only)
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28
1																												
2																												
3																												
4																												
5																												
6																												
7																												
8																												
Routine Card #																												

Move # **Comments:**

_____ _____

_____

_____ _____

*Method: FORI-Fluency Oriented Reading Instruction; WR-Wide Reading; ORL-Oral Recitation Lesson; FDL-Fluency Development Lesson; SBE-Shared Book Experience; RAVE-0Retrieval, Automaticity, Vocabulary, Engagement, and Orthography; SSR-Silent Sustained Reading; ScSR-Scaffolded Silent Reading; GRF-Guided Repeated Oral Reading with Feedback; NIM-Neurological Impress Method; PR- Paired Reading; BR-Buddy Reading; CAT-Cross-age Tutoring; TA- Taped-assisted Reading; CB-Computer-based Reading; RT- Readers' Theatre

CURRICULUM VITAE

BRADY DONALDSON

EDUCATION

Doctor of Philosophy 2011
Utah State University
Major: Curriculum and Instruction Area of Emphasis: Reading and Writing
Dissertation: Fluency Instruction in Contemporary Core Reading Programs

MASTER OF EDUCATION 1990
Utah State University
Logan, Utah
Master's Project: Teaching Healthy Lifestyles Using Cooperative Learning

BACHELOR OF SCIENCE 1978 -1979
Utah State University *Logan, Utah*
Major: Elementary Education *Minor: Math/Science*

ASSOCIATE OF SCIENCE 1974-1975, 1977-1978
College of Eastern Utah

ENDORSEMENTS/CERTIFICATIONS
Utah Educator License: Level II, Elementary Education, Grades 1-8
Utah Level I and II Reading Endorsements
English as a Second Language Endorsement
Gifted and Talented Education Endorsement
C.L.I.P. (Collaborative Literacy Intervention Project) Early Reading Intervention

EXPERIENCE

ADMINISTRATIVE EXPERIENCE
Salt Lake City School District Salt Lake City, Utah
Literacy Coach 2008-Present
Reading First Grant Coordinator/Literacy Coach 2004-2008

Utah State Office of Education Salt Lake City, Utah
Education Specialist, Reading Intervention 2003-2004

Carbon School District, Price, Utah
Reading Excellence Act Grant Coordinator 2000-2003
District Literacy Coordinator 2002-2003

ELEMENTARY EDUCATOR
Salt Lake School District, Salt Lake City, Utah
Backman Elementary, Reading Coach 2005-2006
Backman Elementary, Grade 1 2004-2005

Carbon County School District, Price, Utah

Creekview Elementary, Grade Five	1997-2000
Castle Heights Elementary, Grade Three	1993-1997
Durrant Elementary, Grades One and Five	1987-1993
Sally Mauro Elementary, Grades Two and Two/Three Split	1981-1987
Durrant Elementary, Grades Two and Six	1979-1981

ADJUNCT INSTRUCTOR

Utah State University, Logan, Utah

Advanced Comprehension	2000-present
Content Area Reading and Writing	
Reading Assessment and Intervention	

University of Utah Salt Lake City, Utah

Foundations in Reading 2008-Present	
Assessment and Intervention for Reading Difficulties	2011

Southern Utah University, Draper, Utah

Reading Assessment and Intervention	2011

PRESENTATIONS

- Reading First Summer Reading Institute, 2004, 2005, 2006
- Utah PTA Reading Summit, UVSC,2005
- English Language Learners Conference, 2004
- Tooele School District Parent Literacy Night, 2004
- Fluency Training, Reading First Bidders' Conference, Principal's Institute; 2003; Ogden School District, 2004
- Phonemic Awareness and Phonics Training, Duchesne School District, 2003; Salt Lake City School District, 2004
- Dynamic Indicators of Basic Early Literacy Skills (DIBELS), Carbon School District, 2002; Backman, 2004, Salt Lake City School District, 208-2011
- Carbon School District, Reading and Writing Workshops, 1992-2003
- Qualitative Reading Inventory (QRI) Trainer for USOE, 2000-2003
- International Reading Association, San Francisco, 2002
- Reading Assessment Presenter, USOE, 1998-2002
- National Title I Conference, Phoenix, Arizona, January 2001
- Central Utah Educational Services, 1998-2001
- Northern Utah Educational Services, 1998-2001
- Southwest Educational Development Center, 1998-2001
- Tooele School District, 2000
- Southeast Education Service Center, 1997-2000
- Improving America's Schools Conference, Sacramento, California, 2000
- Apache Junction Unified School District, Arizona, Fall 2000
- USOE State Level Reading Excellence Act Training, 1999-2000
- Utah Rural Schools Conference, 1997-2000
- Presented Reading/Writing Workshops at Rural Schools Conference, 1998 and 1999

SKILLS

- Assisted in development of USOE Reading Intervention Rubric
- Co-authored and directed Carbon District Reading Excellence Act Grant, 1999-2003
- Utah Elementary Language Arts Core Revision Team, 2000-2003

- Trained in Six-Trait Writing and Writing Process
- Trained in Talents Unlimited
- Creekview Reading Peer Tutoring Supervisor, 1997-2000
- Member of Regional Reading Network, 1997-2002
- Member of District Math Committee, Carbon School District,1993-1996
- District Math Specialist, Carbon School District, 1995-1996